

MIDAZOLAM

AS AN

ANAESTHETIC AGENT

IN CHILDREN

by

Robert Douglas Morrison Jones

MBBS (Tasmania), LLB(Hons) London,

FFARACS, FANZCA, FFARCS, FRCA, FHKCA.

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements

for the degree of

Doctor of Medicine

University of Tasmania.

December 1993.

ABSTRACT

A relatively high dose of midazolam has to be administered orally to achieve the favourable effects of premedication in children and this could be associated with arterial oxygen desaturation. Pethidine has been commonly administered as a premedicant to children for many years, however its association with oximetric desaturation has not previously been investigated. In this thesis the incidence, duration and severity of oximetric desaturation episodes was determined following premedication in children with midazolam and pethidine. To facilitate this research, Satmaster™, a computer programme which permits storage, retrieval, signal evaluation and data compilation, was developed in conjunction with the software authors and subjected to artefact template analysis to reduce the inclusion of spurious oximetric data in the determination of the incidence of desaturation. It was found that neither pethidine nor midazolam premedication increased the incidence of episodic desaturation when compared to that occurring during normal sleep. If analgesia is not a premedication requirement, oral midazolam confers the advantage over pethidine of avoiding the pain of an intramuscular injection, without compromising oxygen saturation.

The availability of flumazenil permits specific reversal of the unconsciousness and reflex depression associated with the hypnotic effect of midazolam administration. The combined pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of midazolam and flumazenil in children have not previously been reported. Midazolam pharmacokinetics were shown to compare favourably with those of propofol in a

similar patient population and it was found that midazolam antagonism with flumazenil produced similar clinical awakening rates to those achieved after propofol induction. Blood pressure changes on induction were measured using a standard intermittent noninvasive technique and these were compared with continuous pressure measurements using a Finapres, modified for paediatric use and computerised data acquisition. Propofol induction was associated with hypotension of a significantly greater degree and duration compared to midazolam and thiopentone.

Postoperative recovery after anaesthesia is particularly important for ambulatory surgery. The effect of midazolam on psychomotor performance, residual sedation and mood was shown to be related to plasma concentration. These indices were also used to assess recovery after anaesthetic induction with either midazolam, thiopentone or propofol. A post-box toy completion ratio (PBTR) was developed for assessment of psychomotor performance in children and compared with a standard component of the Wechsler intelligence scale (WISC-R). The PBTR was found to be as sensitive as the WISC-R in this assessment, but also has the advantage of ease of administration. The quality and rate of recovery following unantagonised midazolam induction in the immediate postoperative period is inferior to propofol and thiopentone but within one hour of awakening there is no difference in recovery characteristics between the agents. Recovery of orientation, co-operation and comprehension after flumazenil administration would appear to be as rapid as propofol and superior to thiopentone.

Midazolam (0.5 mg kg^{-1}) administered orally is a suitable premedicant for children. The drug's bitter taste can be disguised, it is rapidly absorbed, producing peak sedative effects at 60 min, and has residual anxiolytic effects 120 min after administration. Premedication was not associated with episodic oximetric desaturation and the children entered the operating suite without overt distress, appearing calm and co-operative. Intravenous midazolam (0.5 mg kg^{-1}) compares favourably to propofol and thiopentone as an induction agent in some respects, providing a intermediate onset of action, intraoperative amnesia, excellent operating conditions and when reversed with flumazenil, it has a short recovery period without unwanted residual effects. However propofol and thiopentone are both easier to administer because their onset of action occurs in one arm-brain circulation time and they demonstrate a definite end-point. Following anaesthetic induction with midazolam, psychomotor performance returned to preoperative unmedicated levels (recorded the previous evening), without flumazenil administration, within 4 hr of eye opening. There were no adverse side effects associated with the administration of midazolam. Midazolam therefore seems to be a very suitable agent for use in elective surgery in children.

PREFACE

STATEMENT OF WORK

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

STATEMENT OF WORK

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any tertiary institution and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis. This thesis is exclusively my own work but assistance was given by the following colleagues with data recording and patient care during anaesthesia: Drs. Andrew Lawson, Lorna Andrew, Sue Gunawardene, Catherine Roulson, Alan Brown, Douglas Smith, Anil Visram, John Kornberg, Michael Irwin and George Mya. Dr. Kelvin Chan and Dr. Maureen Chan provided facilities and guidance for the pharmacokinetic assays and analysis; Dr. John Bacon-Shone gave statistical advice; Dr. Nirmala Rao advised on paediatric psychomotor testing; Mr. Stephen Chan designed the computer software for continuous haemodynamic data acquisition; Raymond Lai, Andy Lai, Shirley Tsang and June Ho provided technical assistance; Betty Chan provided secretarial support. The discussion and conclusions drawn in this thesis are my own personal opinion.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank the colleagues mentioned in my statement of work for their assistance and encouragement, and in particular my friends

Professor Ross B Holland, MBBS, FFARACS
Head, Department of Anaesthesia & Intensive Care,
John Hunter Hospital, University of Newcastle,
New South Wales, Australia.
Formerly, Professor and Head,
The Department of Anaesthesiology,
The University of Hong Kong.

and

Professor Kelvin Chan, PhD, FRPharm.S, FIBiol, FCP, FACB
Director, School of Pharmacy,
Liverpool John Moores University,
Liverpool L3 3AF, United Kingdom.
Formerly Reader,
Department of Pharmacology,
The Chinese University of Hong Kong,
Shatin, New Territories, Hong Kong.

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this work

to my wife Alice,

as recognition of her love, advice and encouragement,

during all aspects of preparation of this thesis,

and

to my loving parents

for providing me the opportunity to pursue my chosen career.

CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	ii
PREFACE	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	ix
I INTRODUCTION	
Thesis objectives	2
Properties of the ideal anaesthetic agent	3
Currently available premedicants and induction agents	5
Specific requirements of paediatric anaesthesia	8
Why choose midazolam?	11
II METHODS	
Patient selection and anaesthesia	18
Psychomotor assessment	23
Oximetric data acquisition	27
Haemodynamic data acquisition	32
Drug assays and pharmacokinetic analysis	35
Statistical methods	46
III MIDAZOLAM AS A PREMEDICANT	
Effect of premedication on oxygen saturation	50
Effect of midazolam premedication on preoperative psychomotor performance, mood and sedation	64

IV	MIDAZOLAM AS AN INDUCTION AGENT	
	Pharmacokinetics of midazolam and flumazenil	80
	Pharmacokinetics of propofol	98
	Haemodynamic changes on induction of anaesthesia with midazolam, propofol or thiopentone	115
V	RECOVERY FROM ANAESTHESIA	
	Antagonism of the hypnotic effect of midazolam	130
	Recovery following induction of anaesthesia with midazolam, propofol and thiopentone	146
VI	DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS	161
	REFERENCES	172
	APPENDICES	198
	Appendix A List of presentations & publications	199
	Appendix B Ethics committee approval & written consent	203
	Appendix C Psychometric data	214
	Conscious state & mood	215
	Psychomotor assessment	221
	Appendix D Pharmacodynamic data	234
	Oximetric	235
	Cardiorespiratory	243

Appendix E	Assay methodology data	271
	Midazolam	272
	Thiopentone	274
	Propofol	276
Appendix F	Pharmacokinetic data	278
	Midazolam	279
	Flumazenil	286
	Propofol	289
Appendix G	Drug Blood Levels	291
	Midazolam	292
	Thiopentone	294
	Propofol	295
Appendix H	Data collection sheets	296

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Thesis objectives	2
Properties of the ideal anaesthetic agent	3
Currently available premedicants and induction agents	5
Specific requirements of paediatric anaesthesia	8
Why choose midazolam?	11

THESIS OBJECTIVES

Midazolam has been widely used in adult anaesthetic practice as a premedicant and for sedation during minor surgical and invasive diagnostic procedures. The favourable physiochemical properties and the availability of the specific reversal agent, flumazenil, would seem to confer advantages to midazolam as an anaesthetic agent in children. The relationship between premedicant effect in children and midazolam serum levels has not previously been investigated. Induction pharmacodynamics of midazolam have not been compared with propofol and thiopentone, nor has the pharmacokinetic disposition, cardiorespiratory effects and clinical effectiveness of flumazenil administration in children been previously determined.

The objectives of this thesis are, firstly to investigate the effect of midazolam premedication on psychomotor performance, sedative level, mood, memory and oximetric desaturation incidence in children. Secondly, to compare the induction pharmacodynamics of thiopentone and propofol with midazolam, and thirdly to compare the quality and rate of recovery after anaesthetic induction between midazolam (with and without flumazenil antagonism), propofol and thiopentone.

It is hypothesised that midazolam is both a suitable premedicant and induction agent for elective paediatric anaesthetic practice.

PROPERTIES OF THE IDEAL ANAESTHETIC AGENT

General anaesthesia is a drug induced state combining unconsciousness, analgesia, amnesia, reflex depression and muscle relaxation. The ideal anaesthetic agent should provide all aspects of anaesthesia, permitting rapid reversal and return to the preanaesthetic state, without unwanted effects. However, such an agent is not available, nor likely to be in the future and desired anaesthetic requirements are presently met only by a combination of vastly differing groups of drugs.

To a large extent, tradition has determined the clinical use of premedication. Previously, anaesthetic induction was a slow, unpleasant process accomplished using pungent inhaled agents and accompanied by unwanted reflex stimulation. Premedication was employed to attenuate these responses and shorten induction time (Shearer, 1960). Today, intravenous induction produces a rapid, smooth transition to the second stage of anaesthesia and it could be argued that premedication is no longer necessary (Lindahl, 1990). Now, the most common reason given for administering premedication is to allay patient anxiety and induce patient quiescence (Sigurdsson et al, 1983, Walsh et al, 1987). The ideal premedication should be safe, easy to administer, anxiolytic, allow a smooth anaesthetic induction and have no undesirable effects.

The ideal anaesthetic induction agent should combine desirable physical, pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic properties and there should be available a competitive, specific antagonist (Jones, 1989). The drug should be water soluble,

non-irritating to the tissues, stable in aqueous solution, have a long shelf life and be inexpensive to synthesise. The ideal induction agent should produce a rapid and smooth onset of hypnosis, without the unwanted effects of pain, myoclonus or cardio-respiratory depression. The agent should possess analgesic and amnesic properties and recovery of consciousness should be rapid and smooth.

Midazolam, prepared as a water soluble salt, is a powerful anxiolytic with a high clinical therapeutic index and can be administered by a wide variety of routes. It causes only slight ventilatory depression when the clinically recommended dosage is administered and can be specifically antagonised with flumazenil (Cook, 1992). Intravenous administration of midazolam does not seem to possess intrinsic analgesic activity but intrathecally deposited midazolam has been recently shown to possess analgesic properties (Goodchild and Noble, 1987). Use of midazolam as the sole agent to achieve satisfactory anaesthesia would induce a large number of unwanted and potentially lethal effects.

Midazolam seems to be one of the few drugs that can be employed in clinical practice as both a premedicant and for induction of general anaesthesia (Fragen, 1988). A clinical therapeutic index states how selective a drug is in producing a desired effect but is an inappropriate basis for comparison of anaesthetic agents because death resulting from respiratory depression may not be related to the *clinical* safety margin of induction agent administration. A comparison of the properties of midazolam with the characteristics of the ideal premedicant and induction agent will usefully illustrate the potential for use of this drug in general anaesthesia.

CURRENTLY AVAILABLE PREMEDICANTS AND INDUCTION AGENTS

Premedication regimens have included a wide variety of sedative-hypnotic, narcotic and antisialagogue drug combinations and routes of administration. Often these drugs were administered intramuscularly by injection. Pethidine, morphine, and fentanyl are the most popular narcotics used for premedication. Unfortunately the primary effects of these drugs do not match the desired effects of premedication, viz. sedation and anxiolysis. Moreover, narcotic administration can be associated with dose-dependent side effects, such as skin reactions, postoperative nausea, dysphoria and respiratory depression. Attainment of an adequate level of sedation often requires concurrent administration of another agent such as trimeprazine or droperidol, increasing the likelihood of unwanted effects. Comparative adult studies have indicated that benzodiazepines are more effective in producing anxiolysis and amnesia and have also been shown to be superior hypnotics to barbiturates when administered on the evening prior to surgery (White, 1989).

Recent changes in philosophy and clinical practice have resulted in a rationalisation of premedication. The emphasis on ambulatory surgery and a holistic approach to the preoperative preparation of the child have resulted in increasing use of the oral and nasal routes of administration in children (Feld et al, 1990). Oral administration is an important prerequisite for the ideal premedicant in children and water soluble drugs are well absorbed when given via this route (Nicolson et al, 1989). Premedication with oral and intranasal ketamine provides satisfactory sedation

but this is also associated with dose related undesirable effects which include increased oral secretions and random limb movement (Gutstein et al, 1992). Other premedicant agents may be specifically indicated in certain circumstances such as for prevention of postoperative emesis, vagolysis and prophylaxis against acid aspiration, but these drugs do not have specific sedative and anxiolytic effects (Manchikanti et al 1984, O'Sullivan et al 1985).

Inhalational induction is the most commonly used technique in paediatric anaesthesia, however intravenous induction is the method of choice in most older children (Hannallah, 1992) and propofol has been shown to provide a decreased incidence of airway obstruction compared to inhalational induction in children aged 1 to 7 years (Martin et al, 1992). Sedative-hypnotic, opioid analgesic and sedative-amnesic agents are used for intravenous induction of anaesthesia in children. They represent a wide variety of pharmacological compounds, of which the most popular sedative-hypnotic agents are thiopentone, etomidate, midazolam, ketamine and propofol (White, 1988). Propofol and etomidate are not water soluble and both are associated with pain on intravenous injection. Ketamine induction may be associated with excitatory phenomena and can cause cardiovascular stimulation (Moretti et al, 1984). Induction is rapid with propofol and thiopentone but is associated with cardiovascular depression in adults. Induction doses of thiopentone, midazolam and propofol are associated with respiratory depression but this is not so with ketamine, nor etomidate. Midazolam is the only induction agent which provides significant amnesia (White, 1988). Emergence after etomidate and propofol is rapid whilst that following thiopentone, midazolam and ketamine is intermediate. Unwanted

effects of induction agents include drowsiness, nausea and vomiting, psychomimetic phenomena and dizziness (Marshall and Longnecker, 1991). Although midazolam also causes postoperative drowsiness, this can be antagonised by flumazenil (Hunkeler et al, 1981). Thiopentone produces rapid and smooth loss of consciousness, but is associated with marked cardiorespiratory changes, lacks analgesic properties and recovery is slowed by drowsiness and sedation (Reves 1986, Sebel and Lowdon 1989).

Obviously many of the desirable properties of the ideal induction agent have not been achieved with the currently available drugs. Thiopentone remains the most widely used intravenous induction agent despite its limitations and although it was introduced more than 50 years ago, it remains the induction agent against which more recent drugs must be compared (Dundee, 1984).

SPECIFIC REQUIREMENTS OF PAEDIATRIC ANAESTHESIA

Children are excellent candidates for outpatient surgery (Hannallah, 1992). Frequently the paediatric surgical patient has no concomitant systemic disease and the proposed surgical procedure is relatively minor. Day surgery minimises both parental separation and exposure to hospital acquired infection for the child. It may appear that general anaesthesia in the child above the age of three years differs little when compared to adults, however there are some special considerations applicable to the child undergoing ambulatory anaesthesia.

The narrowest part of the child's airway is at the cricoid cartilage and the tracheal mucosa in this area is easily damaged by a tracheal tube that is too large (Sumner and Facer, 1986). Small reductions in the internal diameter of the child's trachea cause relatively large increases in airways resistance and work of breathing (Brown and Fisk, 1979). In children under the age of 6 years, peripheral airways contribute about 50% of total airways resistance and therefore minor respiratory disease is likely to cause more substantial problems in these children when compared to adults (Hogg et al, 1970). Children have a runny nose for a significant part of the year and often present for minor surgery with prodromal or recovery symptoms of an upper respiratory tract infection (Hannallah, 1992). The smaller the child, the less is the respiratory reserve, and the higher the risk of postoperative respiratory depression.

Tiret and colleagues reported a prospective survey of anaesthesia-related morbidity and mortality following 40,240 anaesthetics in infants and children (Tiret et al, 1988). They found that circulatory failure was as frequent as respiratory failure in children and that complications were observed almost equally during induction, maintenance and recovery. The fact that the only death within the child age-group occurred during recovery, emphasises that this period is particularly critical (Tiret et al, 1986).

Liver metabolism matures in infancy. The degree of protein binding of thiopentone and the steady state volume of distribution in children, are similar to adult values (Sorbo et al, 1984). Shorter recovery times are expected for children compared to adults because of the faster clearance of induction agents, which is in turn attributable to the relatively larger hepatic mass (Udkow, 1978). In general children seem to require a larger dose of drug on a mg kg^{-1} basis for the induction of anaesthesia, either because they exhibit a decreased central nervous system sensitivity or there is a more rapid distribution from the central to the peripheral compartments (Gepts and Camu, 1991). Furthermore, the volumes of tissues belonging to the vessel-rich group are proportionally larger, accepting a larger fraction of the cardiac output, while muscle and fatty tissues represent a lesser percentage of total body volume compared to adults (Eger et al, 1971).

In view of these anatomical, physiological and pharmacological characteristics in paediatrics, a drug which is both well absorbed following oral administration, and which when given as an anaesthetic induction agent has a high therapeutic index,

non-cumulative metabolism and has available a specific antagonist, would seem the most appropriate choice in children.

WHY CHOOSE MIDAZOLAM?

The benzodiazepines have advantages over other sedative-hypnotics because they reliably induce sedation and anxiolysis, have an extremely wide therapeutic range and their administration is not associated with histamine release or adrenocortical secretion suppression. However most are unsuitable as anaesthetic induction agents, because of their unpredictable onset of action and the production of active metabolites with longer terminal half-lives than the parent drug, resulting in prolonged postoperative sedation. Furthermore, their lipophilicity and insolubility in aqueous solutions have resulted in propylene glycol formulations which cause pain on injection, venous irritation and thrombophlebitis.

Midazolam (Ro 21-3981) was synthesised in 1974 by Fryer and Walser and is an imidazobenzodiazepine derivative (Walser et al, 1978) (Figure I.1). It was released for general use world-wide in 1986 with indications for use as a premedicant, intravenous sedative and for induction of general anaesthesia. Midazolam has a molecular weight of 362, a pK_a of 6.15 and the parental solution is buffered to an acidic pH of 3.5. The drug has a fused imidazole ring that accounts for its basicity, stability in aqueous solution and rapid metabolism (Gerecke, 1983). Midazolam is different from other benzodiazepines because in acidic aqueous media it is water soluble, but at physiological pH an intramolecular rearrangement occurs and midazolam becomes highly lipophilic. This characteristic of midazolam permits a water soluble parenteral solution which causes minimal local irritation after either intramuscular or intravenous administration, and the high lipophilicity allows rapid

absorption from the gastrointestinal tract and entry into brain tissue. Midazolam is rapidly and extensively metabolised by hepatic microsomal enzymes, resulting in a short elimination half-life of 2-4 hours. The principle metabolite is 1-hydroxymethylmidazolam but small amounts of 4-hydroxymidazolam and 1,4-dihydroxymidazolam are formed in parallel which are then excreted in the urine as glucuronide conjugates (Arendt et al, 1984).

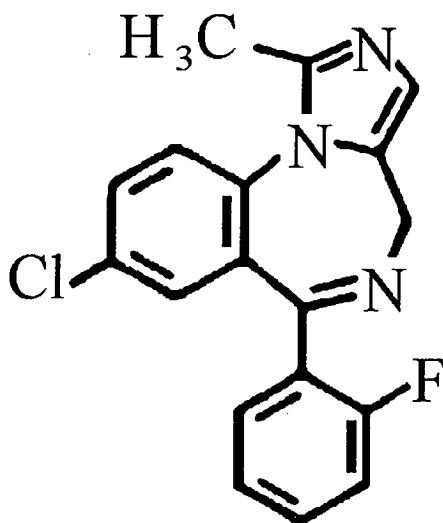


FIGURE I.1: Structural formula of midazolam.

In contrast to diazepam, the hydroxylated metabolites of midazolam have minimal central nervous system activity (Ziegler et al, 1983). Midazolam produces amnesia, anxiolysis, sedative/hypnotic, anticonvulsant and muscle relaxant effects, typical of the general actions of the benzodiazepine group of drugs on the central nervous system (Pieri, 1983). The ideal benzodiazepine for anaesthesia should possess a predominant sedative/hypnotic effect, short duration of activity, no active metabolites, be stable and well tolerated and there should be available a pure

competitive antagonist to interrupt transiently or permanently the actions of the agent when the anaesthetist so desires (Amrein et al, 1988). Midazolam very nearly satisfies all these 'ideal' prerequisites and the discovery of flumazenil in 1979 (Hunkeler et al, 1981) makes midazolam a very suitable anaesthetic agent, particularly for use in children.

Flumazenil (Ro 15-1788) is a benzodiazepine antagonist with a molecular weight of 303 and a pK_a of 1.7, which can reverse all the behavioural, neurological and electrophysiological effects of all the benzodiazepine agonists (Hunkeler et al, 1981). Flumazenil is similar in structure to midazolam except that chloride and the phenyl group in midazolam is replaced by fluoride and a carbonyl group, respectively, in flumazenil (Figure I.2). Flumazenil is less lipophilic and less water soluble than midazolam but can still be administered as an injectable aqueous solution.

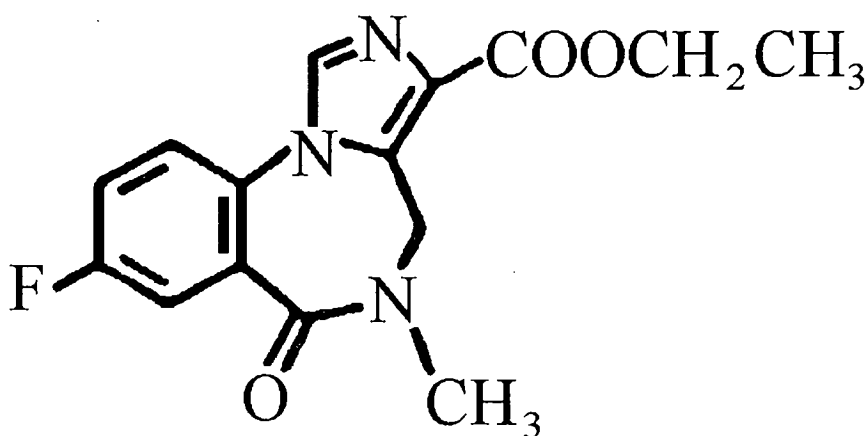


FIGURE I.2: Structural formula of flumazenil.

Flumazenil has a high affinity for the benzodiazepine receptor but with an apparent complete lack of pharmacological activity (Ritter et al, 1988). It has a distribution half-life of less than 5 minutes, an elimination half-life of 0.7-1.3 hours in adults and the drug achieves a relatively high plasma concentration compared to midazolam, because it is only 50% bound to plasma proteins (Roncari et al, 1986). The clinical applications of flumazenil require further evaluation but its ability to antagonise benzodiazepines could be advantageous where residual sedation exists beyond anaesthetic needs, accidental or iatrogenic oversedation occurs, following unexpected reactions to benzodiazepines and in the treatment of intentional benzodiazepine intoxication (Geller and Halpern, 1991).

The powerful amnesic and anxiolytic properties of midazolam and use of the parenteral formulation orally, resulted in it rapidly becoming established as a suitable premedicant in children, despite the need to disguise the drug's bitter taste (Feld et al, 1990). There are now numerous studies detailing pharmacokinetic, pharmacodynamic and clinical acceptance of various midazolam premedicant regimens in paediatric patients (Payne et al, 1989). A feature of benzodiazepines is the relationship between drug concentration and effect (Reves, 1984). Pharmacokinetic-pharmacodynamic modelling has recently been re-evaluated in an attempt to explain inter-individual differences in dose response relationships (Henthorn and Avram, 1991). The relationship between serum midazolam levels, mood, level of sedation and psychometric performance following premedication with midazolam has not previously been investigated in children.

At the time when Salonen and colleagues initially investigated the place of midazolam in paediatric anaesthetic practice, neither the usefulness nor pharmacokinetics of the drug had been thoroughly described in children (Salonen et al, 1987). Indeed, there were only 4 original articles reporting the use of midazolam as an induction agent in children prior to 1989, before the work on this thesis commenced. There were no controlled trials of flumazenil administration to reverse postoperative hypnosis associated with midazolam induction of anaesthesia in children and only one case report of its use following benzodiazepine poisoning in children (Wood et al, 1987). The place of midazolam as a premedicant and induction agent in paediatric outpatient anaesthesia is controversial but the introduction of flumazenil permits reversal of any prolonged sedation and may therefore extend its use to this rapidly developing area of patient care (Westhorpe, 1990). However neither midazolam nor flumazenil have yet been licensed for use in paediatric patients. This is not unusual as few drugs are initially licensed for use in patient subgroups. Therefore the safety and efficacy of these drugs must be determined by clinical investigation to determine their place in this specialised field of anaesthesia. The simultaneous clinical pharmacokinetics of flumazenil and midazolam have not been studied in children and there are very few comparable studies in adults (Lauven et al, 1985). The quality of recovery after anaesthesia is related to the incidence of complications (Patel & Rice, 1991) and a controlled comparative study with midazolam of recovery following the administration of common induction agents used in children, has not been undertaken.

The situation described above is that which existed at the commencement of

the work on this thesis in 1989. The literature has expanded considerably over the past five years and the publications which have resulted from this research are listed in *Appendix A*. The following chapters present my research and a review of the use of midazolam as a premedicant and an induction agent for elective surgery in children.

CHAPTER II

METHODS

Patient selection and anaesthesia	18
Psychomotor assessment	23
Oximetric data acquisition	27
Haemodynamic data acquisition	32
Drug assays and pharmacokinetic analysis	35
Statistical methods	46

PATIENT SELECTION AND ANAESTHESIA

The selection criteria and standardised components of the anaesthetic technique are described below, with any differences in management being presented in the relevant chapters.

Table II.1: Drug studies reported from this thesis

Number of children	Study description
12	The pharmacokinetics of propofol (Diprivan)
40	Antagonism of the hypnotic effect of midazolam
12	The pharmacokinetics of flumazenil and midazolam
20	The effect of premedication on oxygen saturation
30	Premedication with oral midazolam - psychomotor function, anxiolysis, sedation and pharmacokinetics
30	A comparison of three induction agents - cardiovascular effects and recovery

In total, 144 children aged 1-12 years were studied (Table II.1). All children were ASA grade I (Dripps et al, 1961)(Table II.2) and all children, except those participating in the oximetric study, underwent circumcision for the treatment of phimosis. The studies were all approved by the Faculty of Medicine Ethics Committee (The University of Hong Kong) and written informed consent was obtained from the parents (*Appendix A*). Children were excluded from the study if there was a history of asthma or allergies, previous adverse anaesthetic experience, halothane anaesthesia within the previous one month, hepatic, renal, respiratory, cardiac or haematological disease or developmental disability. Children undergoing psychomotor assessment were excluded if aged less than 4 years.

Table II.2: American Society of Anesthesiologists (ASA) Physical Status Categories (*modified from Dripps et al, 1961*).

Category	Description
I	Healthy patient
II	Mild systemic disease - no functional limitations
III	Severe systemic disease * - definite functional limitation
IV	Severe systemic disease * that is a constant threat to life
V	Moribund patient not expected to survive 24 hours with or without operation
E	Emergency

* Whether or not the system disease is the disease for which the patient is undergoing surgery.

All patients were premedicated with midazolam 0.5 mg kg^{-1} (maximum dose 15 mg) and atropine 0.02 mg kg^{-1} given by mouth 2 hours before operation, except when midazolam premedication was compared with a group of children receiving intramuscular pethidine 1 mg kg^{-1} and when propofol disposition pharmacokinetics were investigated. In this latter group, oral trimeprazine was used because the ethics committee would not authorise two drugs (midazolam and propofol), neither of which at that time were approved for use in children, to be administered to the same patient. To facilitate painless intravenous cannulation, EMLA emulsion cream 2 g (lignocaine 25 mg g^{-1} and prilocaine 25 mg g^{-1}) was applied to either the dorsum of the hand or to skin overlying the basilic vein in the cubital fossa. In the operating

suite a 24 or 23-gauge cannula was inserted into the vein underlying the EMLA-pretreated areas.

Induction of anaesthesia was accomplished with either midazolam 0.5 mg kg^{-1} , propofol 2.5 mg kg^{-1} or thiopentone 4 mg kg^{-1} injected intravenously over 30 seconds following midazolam premedication. Patients induced with propofol were pre-treated with procaine hydrochloride 1 mg kg^{-1} intravenously 15 seconds before induction of anaesthesia. Children participating in the determination of the pharmacokinetic disposition of flumazenil and midazolam were given alfentanil $5 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ intravenously, followed 60 seconds later by midazolam, then atracurium 0.5 mg kg^{-1} and the trachea intubated and the child ventilated. Anaesthesia was maintained with 67% nitrous oxide and 0.5% isoflurane in oxygen via a Mapleson F breathing system with hand ventilation to an end-tidal carbon dioxide partial pressure of 5 kPa. Patients breathing spontaneously were given 67% nitrous oxide and 1-3% halothane in oxygen via a Mapleson F (<25 kg) or Mapleson A (>25 kg) breathing system as maintenance anaesthesia. A caudal injection of 0.25% bupivacaine 0.5 ml kg^{-1} was administered to all children undergoing circumcision, 6 min after induction agent administration. Effectiveness of caudal anaesthesia was tested in the recovery room during emergence. Any child demonstrating a response to pain during gentle compression of the neck of the penis was discarded from the study. A composite system of routine monitoring devices included an electrocardiograph, non-invasive arterial pressure recorder, pulse oximeter, capnograph and inspired oxygen concentration (Cardiocap CM-104, Datex Instrumentarium Corp., Helsinki, Finland). At the end of surgery, if a muscle relaxant had been administered, neuromuscular

block was antagonised with neostigmine and atropine, the trachea extubated and ventilation assisted with 100% oxygen by mask and a Mapleson F breathing system, until spontaneous ventilation resumed. Patients breathing spontaneously were given oxygen 28-34% via a Multi-Vent air entrainment mask (Hudson, Temecula, California, USA) until awake.

For all studies, except the oxygen saturation and pharmacokinetic disposition of propofol, a test of recall was performed to evaluate the effect of medications on memory. This test was performed in the following manner. After premedication and just before transfer to the operating suite, the child was shown a simple picture of a school scene for 30 seconds and asked to name and remember five of the depicted objects. Four hours after the operation, the child's ability to recall these objects was tested and he was scored according to his degree of success (Williams, 1968). On arrival in the operating suite, the child was assessed as agitated or crying, aware and apparently anxiety free, drowsy, or asleep but responsive to command (Jones et al, 1990). Induction was graded as good (absence of side effects), adequate (side effects present but not interfering with induction) and poor (side effects severe and protracted). The duration of anaesthesia and cardio-respiratory data during surgery and recovery were recorded. The time to spontaneous eye opening and self-identification were recorded, as was the child's mood using a structured observation score (Krane et al, 1987) (Table II.3). The child's level of sedation was also recorded using the modified Steward coma scale (Robertson et al, 1977)(Table II.4).

Table II.3: Structured observation scale after Krane et al, 1987.

MOOD	Score
laughing, euphoric	1
happy, playful	2
calm, drowsy, sleepy	3
irritable but calmed by mother	4
screaming, inconsolable	5

Table II.4: Modified Steward coma scale (Robertson et al, 1977)

Airway		Consciousness		Activity
opening mouth or coughing on command	3	fully awake, eyes open, conversing	4	raising one arm on command 2
no voluntary cough, clear airway without support	2	lightly asleep, eyes opening intermittently	3	non-purposeful movement 1
obstruction on neck flexion, airway clear without support on extension	1	eyes open on command or in response to name	2	not moving 0
airway obstructed without support	0	responding to ear pinching	1	
		not responding	0	

Add scores for Airway, Consciousness and Activity:

TOTAL SCORE :

Any side effects of drug administration were noted and when flumazenil was administered, the child's behaviour and the speed of antagonism of midazolam were considered together by an independent observer in the recovery room and were graded as excellent, good, moderate or poor. Raw data are tabulated in *Appendix C*.

PSYCHOMOTOR ASSESSMENT

Dundee and colleagues noted the need for a comprehensive assessment of the preoperative effects of drugs given prior to anaesthesia and sequelae attributed to their use to permit valid comparisons of the efficacy of premedicant regimens (Dundee et al, 1962). Tests of motor skills and co-ordination are used to assess the effects of anaesthetic agents and the speed of recovery in adults (Cashman and Power, 1989). Medicated children are difficult to study and the use of adult tests of psychomotor skill and cognitive function are inappropriate. Craig and colleagues used a post-box toy to assess recovery after anaesthesia in adult gynaecological patients (Craig et al, 1982). In this thesis, the post-box test was modified so that the child became his own control and thereby reduced the effect of interpatient variability and limited the practice effect, associated with this form of assessment.

The day before surgery, each child was familiarised with a post-box toy (Figure II.1) and the completion time of his best performance on seven attempts recorded. After seven attempts the child's learning curve flattened and further attempts resulted in a decline in performance and boredom with the toy. On the day of operation, after midazolam premedication, the child was offered the post-box toy at different times after premedication and his fastest completion time at a single attempt recorded. A ratio of his best preoperative, unmedicated, practised performance, to his post-medication completion times at each assessment was computed as the toy completion ratio (PBTR) for **premedication** assessment. Similarly, a postoperative PBTR was computed for **recovery** assessment:

immediately the child became co-operative post-operatively he was again encouraged to complete the post-box toy and his fastest completion time at a single attempt recorded. This was repeated hourly with each subsequent assessment of recovery, for 4 hours. The data were then related to his best unmedicated performance, and a postoperative PBTR computed for each recovery assessment.

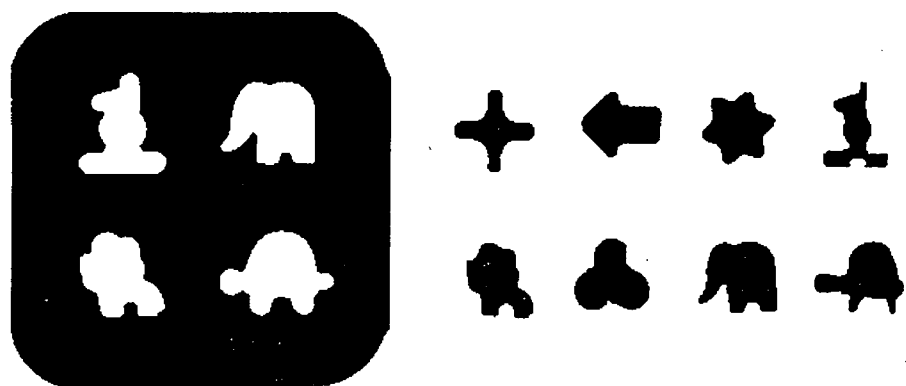


FIGURE II.1: The post-box toy used for psychomotor assessment.

Recovery from anaesthesia can also be assessed by a variety of intelligence tests which have been validated for assessment of pre- and postoperative cognitive function over a broad range of abilities in adults and children (Chung et al, 1989). The Wechsler intelligence scale (WISC), which can be matched for the child's age and race (WISC-R), measures verbal and motor performance (WISC-R, 1981). The scale has been used to assess the effects of premedication, as well as the recovery from anaesthesia in adults (Anderson et al, 1985, Rollason et al, 1971). The coding

test component of the WISC-R was performed by children participating in the comparative induction agent study; following each completed post-box assessment. Two coding worksheets were used, one for children aged 5 to 6 years and another for children aged 7 to 15 years (Figure II.2).

甲

☆ ⊖ △ ⊕ □

示範項目

○	☆	□	+	△	☆	○	□	△	+
□	+	☆	△	+	○	☆	△	□	○
☆	○	□	☆	□	+	△	○	+	☆
+	□	△	○	+	□	☆	□	○	△
□	☆	+	△	☆	△	○	☆	△	□

乙

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
÷)	+	┌	└	√	(÷	└

示範項目

2	1	4	6	3	5	2	1	3	4	2	1	3	1	2	3	1	4	2	6	3	1	2
3	1	5	4	2	7	4	6	9	2	5	8	4	7	6	1	8	7	5	4	8	6	9
1	8	2	9	7	6	2	5	4	7	3	6	8	5	9	4	1	6	8	9	3	7	5
9	1	5	8	7	6	9	7	8	2	4	8	3	5	6	7	1	9	4	3	6	2	7

FIGURE II.2: WISC-R coding test for children aged 5 and 6 years (upper) and 7-15 years (lower).

The evening before surgery, each child is taught, within the strict guidelines of the test, how to complete the coding worksheet. After successful completion of the practice items in the sample area (5 items for the younger and 7 for the older children), the child is encouraged to complete as many items, in order, without omission, within 120 seconds. The child's performance is then scored with a bonus awarded for a perfect completion within the allotted time viz. 111 - 120" score 45, 101 - 110" score 46, 91 - 100" score 47, 81 - 90" score 48, 71 - 80" score 49, and 70" or less 50. The best completion score after 7 attempts was recorded for later comparison with the child's medicated performance. A figure is scored as correct if it is clearly identifiable as the keyed figure, even if drawn imperfectly or if, after realising his mistake, the child draws the correct figure next to the incorrect one. A maximum raw score of 50 points is possible for the younger child and 93 points for the older child (including any time bonus).

OXIMETRIC DATA ACQUISITION

The respiratory effects of anaesthetic medications have previously been based on intermittent observations of ventilatory rate or arterial blood gas tensions (Jones et al, 1990). Pulse oximetry has enabled continuous monitoring of arterial oxygen saturation, but data derived from pulse oximetry has inherent limitations, one of which is artefactual desaturation caused by patient movement (Langton and Hanning, 1990).

The same pulse oximeter (Nellcor N-200E, Nellcor Inc., California, USA) was used for all the patients during the study and connected to a Nellcor D-20/250 OxisensorTM probe, attached to the great toe of each child. Proper function of the oximeter was checked by activating the oximeter's 'self-check' routine and attachment of the instrument to one of the investigators prior to commencement of the study. The serial communication port of the oximeter was connected to a 386SX laptop computer (ALT386SX, Amstrad Plc., Essex, UK). Oximetric, pulse rate and signal amplitude data were sampled 60 times a minute and displayed in real time by SatmasterTM (EMG Scientific, California, USA) on the computer screen. On completion of the study the data were then stored using Satmaster, a software package which allows the retrospective evaluation of desaturation episodes, signal amplitude and pulse rate together with various displays of their incidence and duration.

Data associated with a zero amplitude signal were automatically discarded by the Satmaster software. However, further evaluation was necessary to identify and remove the spurious decreases in arterial oxygen saturation (S_pO_2) produced by motion artefact, which were not associated with zero amplitude. Observation of the patient and Satmaster display revealed that characteristic large variations in signal amplitude occurred consistently during probe movement and that these heralded false reductions in S_pO_2 (Figure II.3).

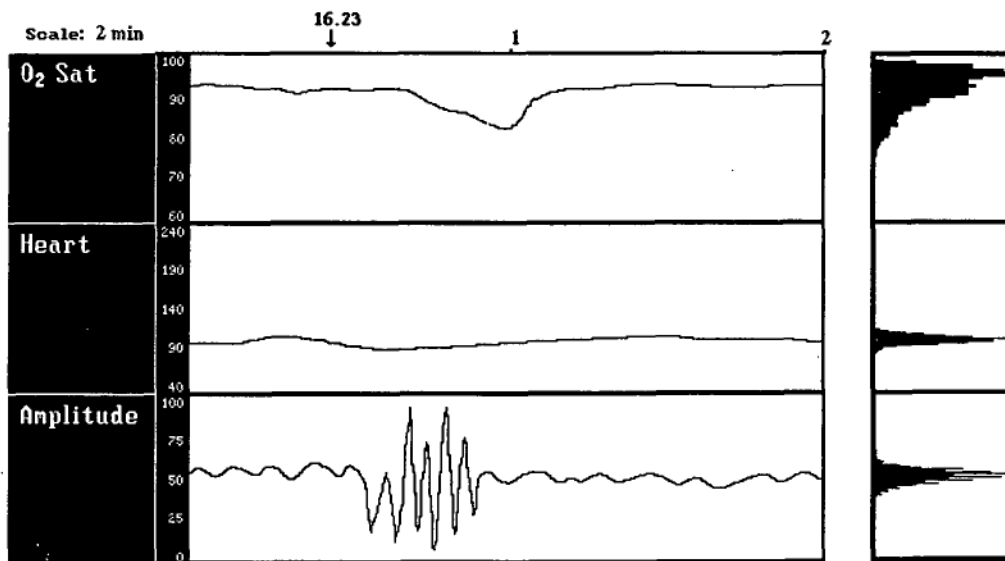


FIGURE II.3: The S_pO_2 tracing in the upper box illustrates an apparent desaturation to 83%. The amplitude tracing in the lower box demonstrates violent spiking (from 25 to 100 units) due to signal interference associated with patient movement. The time scale for the displayed tracing is two minutes.

This pattern was confirmed to be different from the display produced by true desaturations (Figure II.4).

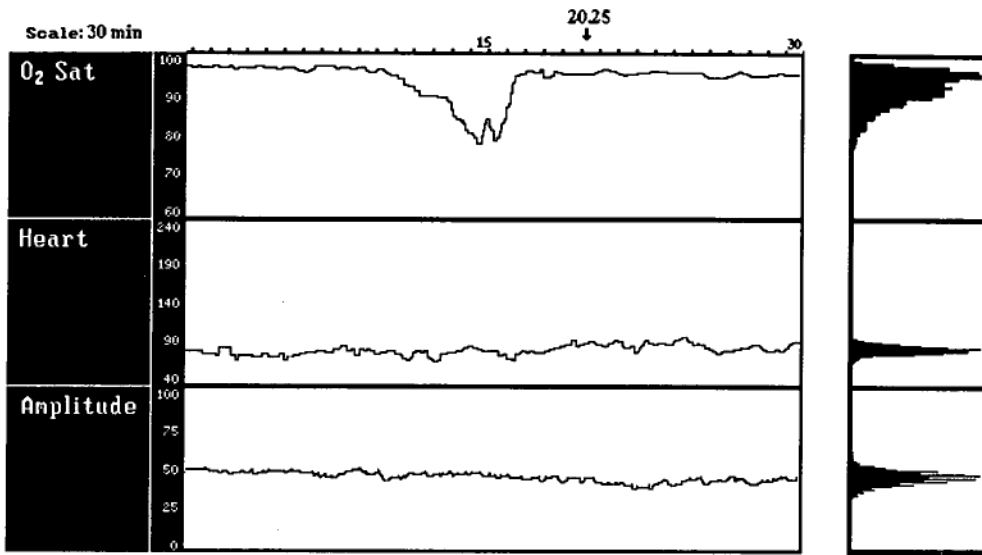


FIGURE II.4: Illustrates a valid desaturation episode to 80% with concurrent rise in pulse rate (middle box), while the signal amplitude (when zoomed-in) remains relatively stable. The time scale for the displayed tracing is 30 minutes.

A template was then constructed which was used to retrospectively identify and invalidate the periods of artefactual desaturation due to movement present in the patient data (Figure II.5) (Jones et al, 1992).

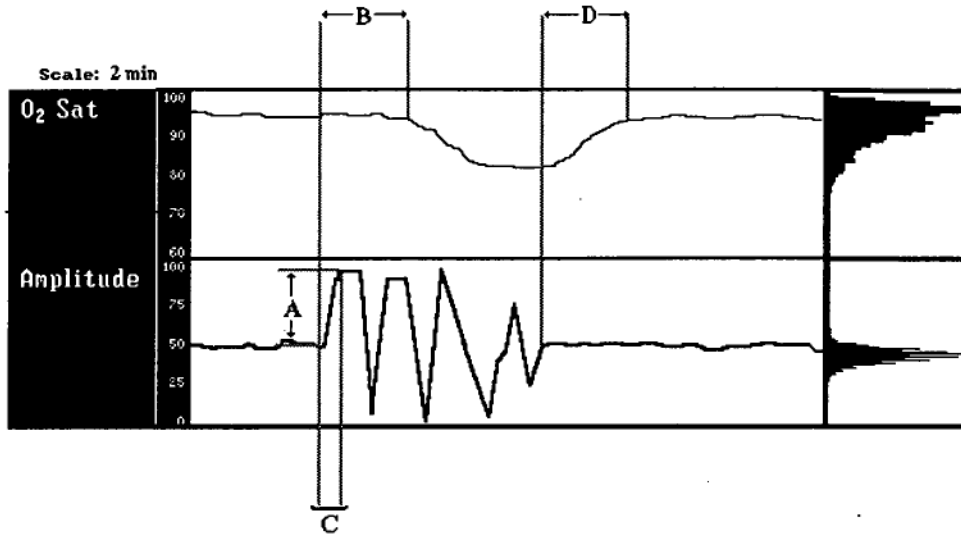


FIGURE II.5: The template used to identify artefactual desaturation data due to patient or probe movement

Reductions in S_pO_2 were considered false if:

1. there were changes in signal amplitude strength of \pm two standard deviations (A) from the previous 60 second mean within 10 seconds prior to the fall in S_pO_2 (B) and
2. the maximum rate of change of signal amplitude occurred within 2 seconds of commencement of signal artefact (C) and
3. the saturation signal stabilised to pre-artefact S_pO_2 levels within 10 seconds of cessation of signal artefact (D).

Each oximetric profile was examined. The recording could be viewed as a whole or magnified so that a recorded segment of two minutes was displayed on the computer screen. Each period of desaturation was evaluated against its concomitant signal amplitude recording. Episodes of desaturation which conformed to the template criteria were discarded and the post-evaluation data compiled and analysed. Oxygen saturation and signal amplitude data recorded from the toe were very similar to that measured with finger probe placement (Reynolds et al, 1993). Furthermore, the temporal lag in desaturation seen in adults appears to be shorter in children because they are smaller, have a faster circulation and normal peripheral vascular perfusion. In another adult study performed contemporaneously with the work for this thesis, the template was shown to have a sensitivity of 96%, a positive predictive power of 98% and a specificity of 60% (Visram et al, 1993). Nearly one-third of all evaluated desaturations had a concurrent change in signal amplitude pattern that suggested both oximeter probes were affected by movement and for the determination of template specificity, these data were discarded. Postoperative oxygen therapy resulted in a small genuine desaturation sample size and this may have distorted the determination of specificity. A larger pool of genuine desaturations may have increased the ratio of true positives to false negatives and therefore increased specificity. An attempt was made to improve specificity of the template by altering the requirements for artefact recognition. Unfortunately, modifications of the template producing a useful increase in specificity were associated with a considerable decline in sensitivity.

HAEMODYNAMIC DATA ACQUISITION

Continuous monitoring of arterial blood pressure is often desirable (Prys-Roberts, 1981) and is widely practised during anaesthesia. Arterial cannulation has associated morbidity (Slogoff et al, 1983) and a non-invasive alternative may be more appropriate, particularly in children.

Haemodynamic data (pulse rate and non-invasive blood pressure) were recorded by transcription from a Cardiocap screen (Cardiocap CM-104, Datex Instrumentarium Corp., Helsinki, Finland) to data sheets every minute or at 5 minute intervals as appropriate, during the early midazolam and flumazenil studies (*Appendix D*). More recently, direct data acquisition was accomplished for haemodynamic data recording during the comparative investigation of the induction agents propofol, midazolam and thiopentone. The Cardiocap was interfaced with a Sigma PC/XT (Sigma Designs Inc., Fremont, California USA) via an 8-port 232c multi-serial card (Decision Computers International, Taipei, Taiwan). Systolic, mean and diastolic blood pressure, pulse rate and time data were stored to disc in ASCII format at 1 minute intervals in real time using data acquisition software written for this system (Chan, 1991).

The peak haemodynamic changes which occur during intravenous induction of anaesthesia in children may be missed with a sampling rate of once per minute. The FinapresTM (model 2300e; Ohmeda, Denver, Colorado, USA) however permitted non-invasive measurement of the blood pressure, pulse rate and time data with

simultaneous data storage to disc in ASCII format at 10 second intervals, before and during induction of anaesthesia. The Finapres non-invasive continuous blood pressure monitor became available in 1989. It employs the technique of Penaz to continuously servocontrol the pressure in a finger cuff to equal the blood pressure in the digit (Pace and East, 1991). Initial uncontrolled studies in the clinical environment were favourable (Van Egmond et al, 1985) but recent performance has been criticised because of drift, poor agreement between the Finapres and arterial line mean/diastolic pressures (Stokes et al, 1991 and Aitken et al, 1991), and unpredictable variability between the arterial line and the Finapres (Gibbs et al, 1991 and Pace et al, 1991). Previous studies also demonstrate the Finapres to be as accurate as currently employed oscillometric techniques (Gorback et al, 1991). A second generation Finapres (2300e) with improved software was released and shown to be consistently more accurate than an intermittent non-invasive blood pressure monitor (Colin Compact Multi-monitor BP-408 Mark II, Nippon Colin Co., Ltd., Komaki City, Aichi, Japan) in adolescents and the earlier software version (Jones et al, 1992b). This alternative device should meet equivalent standards of reliability before recommendation as a substitute for invasive blood pressure monitoring or other current intermittent non-invasive blood pressure monitors (American National Standards Inc.). In the haemodynamic study described in this thesis, a prototype paediatric Finapres cuff was applied to the middle phalanx of the middle finger strictly according to the manufacturer's instructions, and the output from the Finapres 2300e was interfaced to the computer (Jones et al, 1993a). The data files were imported into Lotus 123W ver 1.0 (Lotus Development Corporation, Cambridge, Massachusetts, USA) for display and basic statistical computation.

To further illustrate the limitation of intermittent non invasive blood pressure measurement, haemodynamic data were recorded using both the Cardiacap and the Finapres simultaneously during the comparative investigation of midazolam, propofol and thiopentone induction of anaesthesia.

DRUG ASSAYS AND PHARMACOKINETIC ANALYSIS

The concentrations of midazolam, flumazenil (Jones et al, 1993) and thiopentone (Stanski et al, 1983) in serum, and propofol in whole blood (Plummer, 1987), were determined by high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC). HPLC is a separation technique used to identify and measure the concentration of compounds in solution. Separation is achieved by passing the solute through a column which selectively slows down the velocity of the various compounds. The solute and solvent are then passed through a detecting device for the measurement of compound concentration.

The components of the HPLC system for the assay of propofol were the delivery system (Waters M501 pump, Millipore Corporation, Milford, Massachusetts, USA), automatic gradient controller (Waters 680), injector (Waters WISP712 autosampler), a C_{18} reversed phase column (Resolve C_{18} , Waters) linked to a C_{18} pre-column (Hibar, E. Merck, Darmstadt, Germany), a fluorimetric detector (Waters M470 scanning fluorescence detector) with excitation and emission wavelengths set at 276 nm and 310 nm respectively and an integrator/recorder (Waters 746 data module).

The components of the HPLC system for the assay of midazolam, flumazenil and thiopentone included a delivery system (Waters M501 pump), an injector (Waters WISP712 autosampler), a C_{18} reverse phase cartridge column (Nova-pak, Waters) linked to a C_{18} pre-column and the eluate was measured with a programmable multiwavelength UV detector (Waters M490E) set at 220 nm for midazolam and

flumazenil, and 290 nm and 254 nm for thiopentone, with the integrator/recorder replaced by the Waters MAX810 HPLC system workstation.

All chemicals were of analytical grade. Thymol and sodium dihydrogen phosphate were supplied by British Drug House, Poole, England; cyclohexane, acetonitrile (HPLC grade), glacial acetic acid, dichloromethane (HPLC grade) and methanol were supplied by Mallinckrodt Inc, Paris, Kentucky, USA; triethylamine and diethyl ether were supplied by E. Merck, Darmstadt, Federal Republic of Germany, and tetramethylammonium hydroxide by the Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, USA.

Propofol assay

The propofol assay for the pharmacokinetic and induction studies were performed at different times and in different laboratories. The assay methodology for the induction study is described below and the pharmacokinetic assay method is described in *Chapter IV*. The technique described by Plummer was modified to accommodate small volume blood samples appropriate for children (Plummer, 1987). Samples were collected for measurement of whole blood concentration of propofol and mixed thoroughly in tubes containing lithium-heparin (LH/5, Sarstedt, Numbrecht, West Germany) and stored at +4°C until assayed. Prior stability tests showed that propofol in whole blood samples was stable for a period of three months (Gin et al, 1990). The average recovery of propofol from whole blood was 91% (ranging from 90 - 96%) at 500 ng ml⁻¹. Propofol in 0.5 ml whole blood samples and

internal standard thymol (120 ng), buffered with (1 ml) 0.1M sodium dihydrogen phosphate (pH 4.6), were extracted into cyclohexane (5 ml). After 15 minutes mixing, the samples were centrifuged at 20°C for 15 minutes at 3000 rpm. The organic layer was alkalised with tetramethylammonium hydroxide (50 μ l) and evaporated to dryness at 40°C under nitrogen. The residue was redissolved in methanol (100 μ l) and the concentrate (20 μ l) was analysed by HPLC. The mobile phase consisted of 60% (v/v) acetonitrile in distilled water containing 0.3% (v/v) glacial acetic acid, with a flow rate set at 0.7 ml min⁻¹. An external standard (whole blood with a known concentration of propofol) was used at the beginning and end of each run of approximately 30 samples. Each sample run took 15 minutes with the internal standard appearing at 3.8 minutes and propofol at 5.1 minutes.

Calibration graphs were used for each batch and constructed from the mean of three trials at seven concentrations of propofol. The calibration graphs were linear over the propofol concentration range 10 to 1000 ng ml⁻¹ with coefficients of variation ranging from 0.1 - 12.6%. The between-batch coefficient of variance was 1.7% at 10 ng ml⁻¹ and 4.1% at 500 ng ml⁻¹, with the limit of detection being approximately 10 ng ml⁻¹ (Figure II.6). Complete methodology data are shown in *Appendix E*.

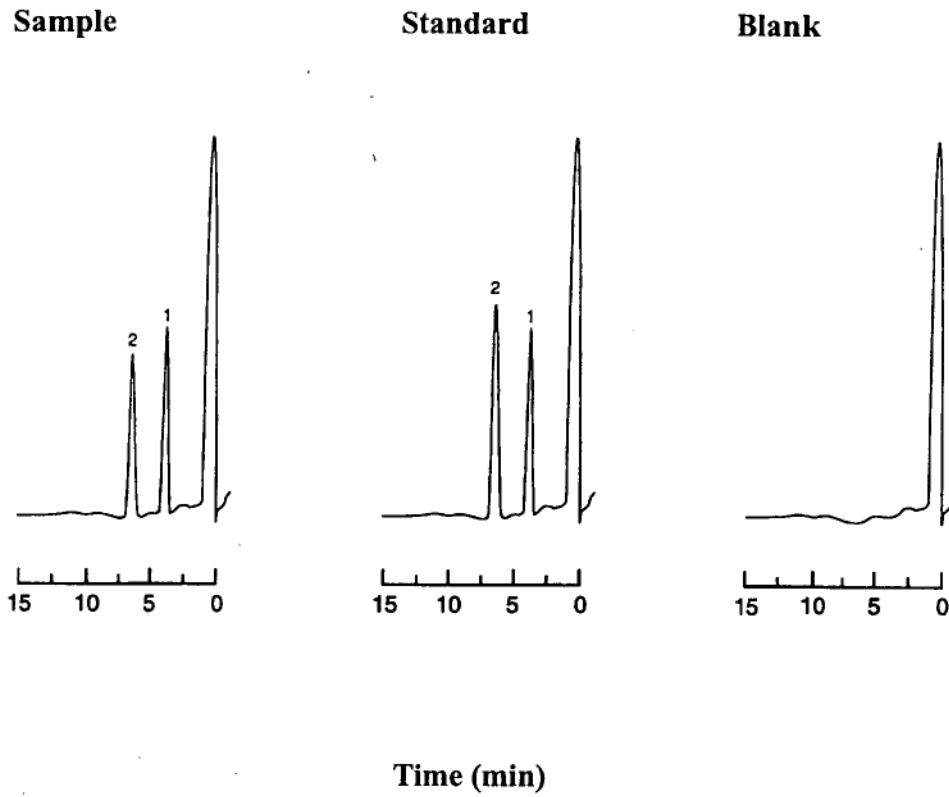


FIGURE II.6: Typical chromatogram of propofol in whole blood (sample), external standard and blank, 1 = thymol and 2 = propofol.

Thiopentone assay

Thiopentone concentration in plasma samples was determined using an HPLC technique with a programmable multiwavelength UV detector set at 290 nm and 254 nm (Waters 490E) based on the technique described by Stanski et al (1983). Thiopentone in plasma (0.2 ml) and internal standard methohexitone (20 μ g) were precipitated with 300 μ l of acetonitrile. The solution was allowed to mix and stand for

5 minutes and then centrifuged for 20 minutes at 5000 rpm, and approximately 40 μ l injected into the HPLC system. The mobile phase consisted of 60% (v/v) 10 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) and 40% (v/v) acetonitrile, with a flow rate set at 1.8 ml min^{-1} (Figure II.7).

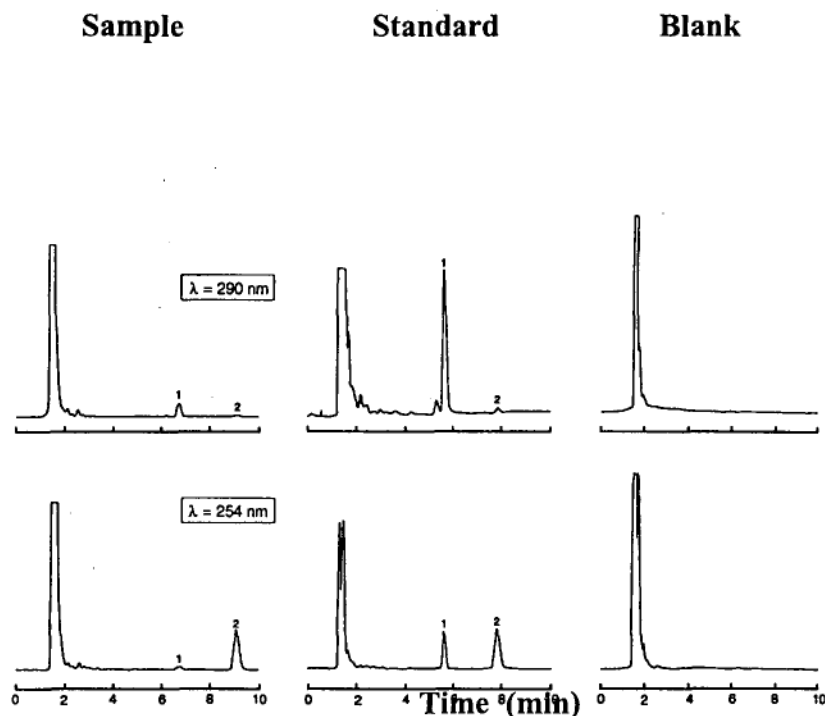


FIGURE II.7: Typical chromatograms of thiopentone in plasma, standard and blank ($\lambda=290$ nm) and internal standard methohexitone in plasma, standard and blank ($\lambda=254$ nm), 1 = thiopentone and 2 = methohexitone.

A range of external standards (serum with a known concentrations of thiopentone and methohexitone) was measured at the beginning and end of each run of 25 samples. Each sample run took 15 minutes with thiopentone appearing at 6.0

minutes and the internal standard at 9.0 minutes. The five calibration graphs were linear over the range 0.05 to 10 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ with coefficients of variation ranging from 0.2 to 10.6%. The between batch coefficients of variance for the thiopentone assay were 9.0% and 6.9% at 0.05 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ and 5 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$, respectively, and the limit for detection for thiopentone was 0.05 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$. Complete methodology data for thiopentone are shown in *Appendix E*.

Midazolam assay

Midazolam concentration in plasma samples, obtained during the induction agent study, were determined employing an HPLC technique with UV detection set at 220 nm using a programmable multiwavelength detector (Waters 490E) based on the assay technique described by Vletter et al (1990). Midazolam in plasma and internal standard flurazepam (200 ng) buffered with sodium dihydrogen phosphate (0.1M) at pH 9, were extracted into 5 ml organic solvent mixture (diethyl ether and dichloromethane in the ratio 60:40 v/v). The solution was allowed to mix for 15 minutes and then the samples were centrifuged at 20°C for 15 minutes at 3000 rpm. The organic extract was evaporated to dryness under nitrogen and the residue was re-dissolved in methanol (80 μl) and approximately 30 μl of the methanolic concentration was injected into the HPLC system. The mobile phase consisted of 32% acetonitrile in 0.04M sodium dihydrogen phosphate buffer (containing 0.1% triethylamine) at pH 7.0. The flow rate was set at 1.5 ml min⁻¹. A range of external standards (serum with a known concentration of midazolam) was measured at the beginning and end of each run of approximately 30 samples. Each sample run took 40

minutes with the internal standard appearing at 20.7 minutes and midazolam at 35.3 minutes. Four calibration graphs were produced for each batch, which were linear over the range 40 to 2000 ng ml⁻¹ with coefficients of variation ranging from 1.5 to 11.8%. The between-batch coefficient of variance at 40 ng ml⁻¹ was 4.8% and 1.5% at 500 ng ml⁻¹, with the limit of detection for midazolam was 10 ng ml⁻¹. Complete methodology data for midazolam are shown in *Appendix E*.

Midazolam and flumazenil assay

The midazolam assay for the simultaneous determination of midazolam, flumazenil and metabolites and the assay used in the induction study were performed at different times and in different laboratories. The following is a general description of the simultaneous midazolam and flumazenil assay. Blood samples (1.0 ml) were collected into tubes containing lithium heparin (LH/5, Sarstedt, Numbrecht, West Germany). Urine samples (1.0 ml) from a bulked 24 hour urine collection were placed into plain tubes for simultaneous determination of midazolam and flumazenil with HPLC and UV detection at 220 nm using a programmable photodiode array detector (Waters 994). Plasma was obtained from blood after centrifugation for 15 minutes at 3000 rpm. Flumazenil and midazolam in plasma or urine sample (0.5 ml) and internal standard flurazepam buffered with 0.1M sodium dihydrogen phosphate (pH 9) were extracted into 5 ml of organic solvent mixture (diethyl ether and dichloromethane 60:40 v/v). The organic extract was evaporated to dryness under nitrogen and the residue was re-dissolved in methanol 80 µl and approximately 30 µl of the methanolic

concentration was injected into the HPLC system. The mobile phase consisted of 32% acetonitrile in sodium dihydrogen phosphate buffer 0.04M (containing 0.1% triethylamine) at pH 7.2. The flow rate was set at 1.5 ml min⁻¹. A C₁₈ reversed-phase cartridge column (Nova-pak, Waters) linked to a C₈ pre-column (Nova-pak, Waters) was used and the eluate was measured by a UV detector set at 220 nm. An external standard (serum with a known concentration of flurazepam, flumazenil, midazolam and metabolites) was run at the beginning and end of each run of 20 samples. Each sample run took 40 minutes with flumazenil appearing at 4.4 minutes, 4-hydroxymidazolam at 11.7 minutes, 1-hydroxymidazolam at 14.6 minutes, the internal standard flurazepam at 20.7 minutes and midazolam at 35.3 minutes (Figure II.8a & II.8b).

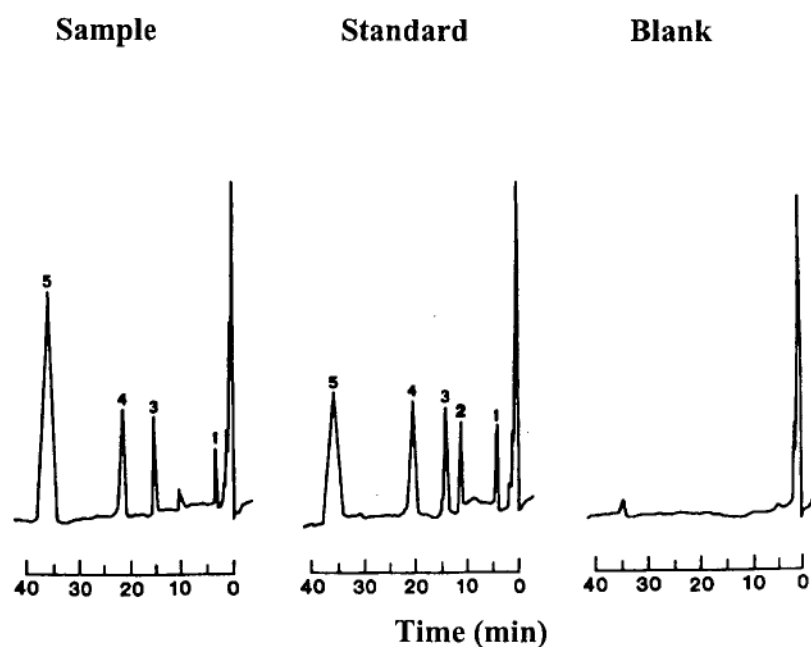


FIGURE II.8a: Typical chromatograms from the analysis of plasma for flumazenil (1), 4-hydroxymidazolam (2), 1-hydroxymidazolam (3), flurazepam - internal standard (4) and midazolam (5)

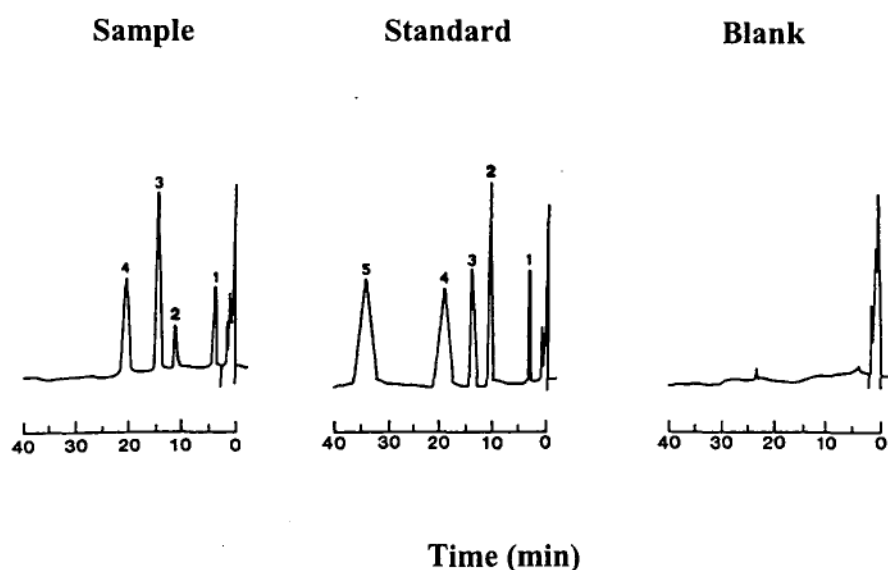


FIGURE II.8b: Typical chromatograms from the analysis of urine extract for flumazenil (1), 4-hydroxymidazolam (2), 1-hydroxymidazolam (3), flurazepam -internal standard (4) and midazolam (5)

The calibration graphs were linear over the ranges 4 to 200 ng ml⁻¹ for flumazenil, 20 to 1000 ng ml⁻¹ for midazolam and 10 to 500 ng ml⁻¹ for both 1-hydroxymidazolam and 4-hydroxymidazolam. The between-batch coefficients of variance for flumazenil 10 ng ml⁻¹, midazolam 50 ng ml⁻¹, 1-hydroxymidazolam 25 ng ml⁻¹ and 4-hydroxymidazolam 25 ng ml⁻¹ were 4.8%, 5.6%, 4.3% and 4.0%, respectively. The limit for detection for flumazenil was 4 ng ml⁻¹ and for midazolam and its metabolites, 10 ng ml⁻¹. Urine samples were analysed for unchanged drug and metabolites, and for their glucuronides after β -glucuronidase treatment for 18 hours at 37 °C. The HPLC assay was found to be specific and selective. During development of the assay procedure, it was established that flumazenil, its carboxylic and demethylated metabolites did not interact with each other under the conditions stated.

Pharmacokinetic analysis

Flumazenil profiles were analysed using the statistical moment theory to obtain pharmacokinetic parameters (Gibaldi and Perrier, 1982a). Terminal elimination half-life ($t_{1/2}$), areas under plasma concentration-time curves (AUC), and apparent total body clearance (Cl) were calculated. Using the trapezoidal rule, the AUC_{120} was calculated from zero to 120 min; the resident area ($t = 120 \text{ min to } \infty$) was calculated as the ratio, $C_{120} : \text{elimination rate constant}$. Plasma clearance was calculated from :

$$Cl_p = \frac{\text{Dose}}{AUC_0^\infty} \quad (1)$$

where Cl_p is the plasma clearance and AUC_0^∞ is the area under the plasma concentration against time curve. The first order rate constants for the decline of plasma concentration after administration were obtained by linear squares regression of the logarithm of the plasma concentration against time. The steady state volume of distribution was calculated from equation :

$$V_{ss} = Cl_p \times MRT \quad (2)$$

where V_{ss} is the steady state volume of distribution and MRT is the mean residence time.

Plasma concentration time profiles of midazolam were analysed by the BITRI computer program (Chan et al, 1987, Jones et al, 1990a) which utilises the method of

residuals, whereby each curve is fitted with experimental data in terms of a bi-exponential or tri-exponential function. BITRI chooses the best fit such that the logarithms of squared deviation between exponential and computer values are minimised (Boxenbaum et al, 1974). Distribution and elimination half-lives ($T_{1/2}^{\alpha}$, $T_{1/2}^{\beta}$, $T_{1/2}^{\gamma}$), apparent central volume of distribution (V), apparent volume of distribution at steady state (V^{ss}), apparent volume of distribution in the elimination phase (V^{γ}) and total body clearance (Cl) were calculated using standard formulae (Gibaldi and Perrier, 1982b).

STATISTICAL METHODS

Data sheets for each trial are shown in *Appendix H* and the raw data for all studies are included in *Appendices C, D, E, F* and *G*. Data in the text, tables and figures are displayed as mean (SD) and [range] and a statistical method of analysis was chosen as appropriate to the type of data to be analysed. In general, data were analysed according to their scale of measurement and the type of study being carried out. Interval scale data compared between two treatment groups of different individuals underwent analysis using an unpaired *t* test; comparison before and after a single treatment in the same individuals used a paired *t* test; if three treatment groups consisted of different individuals, an analysis of variance with Newman-Keuls post hoc analysis was used and multiple treatments in the same individuals used repeated-measures analysis of variance. For significance of association between two variables, Pearson product-moment correlation was used when both variables were continuous and normally distributed.

If it was considered that the data did not represent a normal distribution, the observations were ranked and statistical methods appropriate for data measured on an ordinal scale were employed. Comparison of ordinal scale data between two treatment groups consisting of different individuals used the Mann-Whitney U rank-sum test; before and after treatment comparison in the same individuals was performed with the Wilcoxon signed-rank test; comparison of three treatment groups consisting of different individuals used the Kruskal-Wallis analysis of variance and multiple treatments in the same individuals used the Friedman statistic. Statistical significance

for the degree of association between two variables representing ordinal scale data was determined using the Spearman rank correlation.

Nominal scale data were analysed using chi-square analysis-of-contingency table with Yates correction, except for 2x2 tables which were analysed using Fisher's exact test. Data considered suitable for parametric testing were age, weight, blood pressure, heart rate, respiratory rate, oximetric saturation values, eye opening and self identification times, anaesthetic duration, toy completion and WISC-R completion times. Data analysed using non-parametric procedures were sex, operative procedure, coma scale, sedation score, drug antagonism, incidence of side effects, time within a saturation range and desaturation incidence per hour within a saturation range.

Use of the Finapres 2300e for haemodynamic studies in children required a prior clinical comparison of its performance with other methods of blood pressure measurement (Jones et al, 1992). The strength of agreement between the noninvasive devices and the arterial line, employed a statistical method described by Bland and Altman (1983), which analysed the differences between contemporaneous arterial line measurements and the blood pressure readings from the Finapres and an oscillometric device.

Statistical analysis was executed on a 33MHz Comtech 486 personal computer using the computer interactive statistics programs Minitab™ ver 7.2 (Minitab Inc., State College, Pennsylvania, USA) and CSS:Statistica™ ver 3.1 (Statsoft Inc., Tulsa, Oklahoma, USA).

A p value of 0.05 was chosen as the Type I or α error for all studies. The methods used are described in full in the manuals accompanying the statistics software (Ryan et al, 1985; Minitab reference manual, 1989; CSS:Statistica Vol I-III, 1991) and for general statistical guidance Glantz (1989) and Swinscow (1983) were used.

CHAPTER III

MIDAZOLAM

AS A

PREMEDICANT

Effect of premedication on oxygen saturation	50
Effect of midazolam premedication on preoperative psychomotor performance, mood and sedation	64

EFFECT OF PREMEDICATION ON OXYGEN SATURATION

The pulse oximeter has become a vital instrument in the detection of perioperative hypoxaemia (Severinghaus and Kelleher, 1992). Previous studies of the effect of premedication on arterial oxygenation using intermittent blood gas sampling have reported conflicting results (Jones et al, 1990; Pierce and Carofalo, 1965; Kopman and Ramirez-Inawat, 1980) and few workers have employed continuous pulse oximetry to examine the preoperative period (de Santos et al, 1991; Roelofse and de-V-Joubert, 1990). Continuous oximetric data acquisition should overcome the limitations of intermittent data sampling and permit a more accurate comparison of the effect on blood oxygenation of premedicant drug regimens. However, to ensure accurate inferences are drawn from the saturation data, retrospective evaluation of perioperative desaturation data, employing the computer programme Satmaster™ (Einstein et al, 1992), is necessary (Jones et al 1992).

To be an effective oral premedicant, midazolam has to be given in a relatively large dose per body weight to children because of the first-pass effect through the liver (Feld et al, 1990). Intramuscular pethidine and atropine has been used as a standard premedication in children for many years because it supposedly causes less respiratory depression than morphine (Feychting, 1985). The aim of this study was to compare the effect of these two premedication regimens on arterial oxygen saturation in the post premedication period and the influence, if any, of premedication on the episodic desaturation incidence during the first postoperative 8 hour period, employing evaluated, continuous pulse oximetry in children undergoing minor surgery.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Twenty ASA grade I, Chinese children aged 1-8 years undergoing elective orthopaedic or a minor general surgical procedure were investigated. Subjects were selected according to the criteria set out in the chapter II. In this particular study children were excluded if the predicted operation time was less than half or greater than two hours.

Oximetry data were recorded continuously during four time periods: whilst asleep, on the night before surgery; the period after the premedicant was administered and before transfer to the operating suite; postoperatively in the recovery room; and for a further 8 hours after the child had returned to the general ward (Figure III.1).

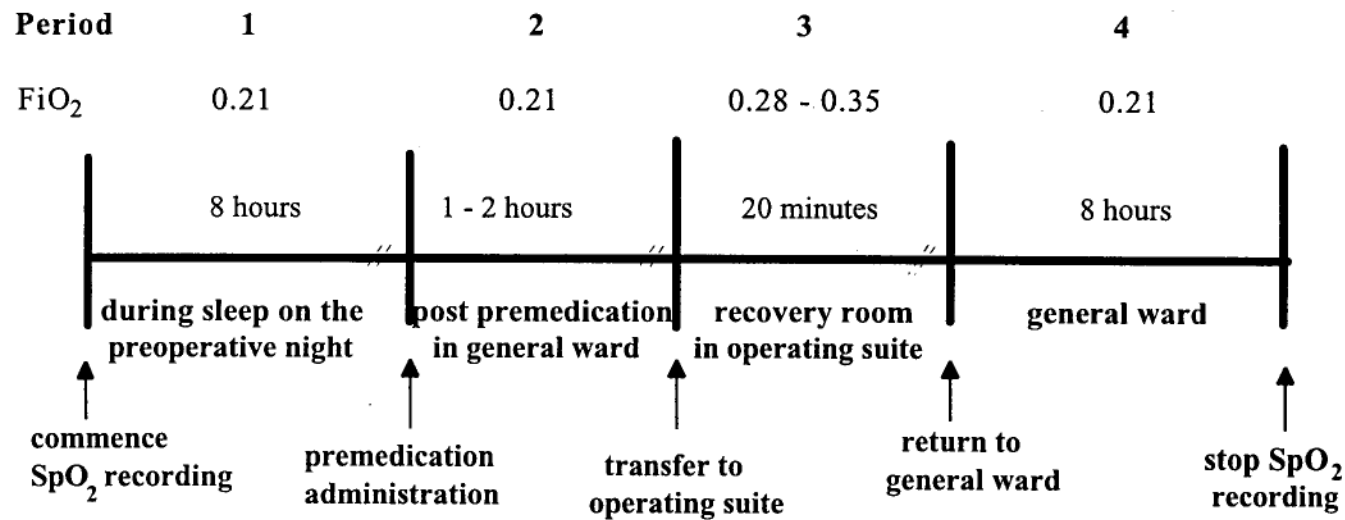


FIGURE III.1: Periods of data collection showing approximate duration of saturation data acquisition, concurrent Fi_IO₂ administered and patient location

A Nellcor D-20/250 OxisensorTM probe was attached to the great toe of each child and the same Nellcor N-200E oximeter was connected to each patient throughout the study. Proper function of the oximeter was checked by activating the oximeter's 'self-check' routine and prior attachment of the instrument to one of the investigators. The serial communication port of the oximeter was connected to an Amstrad 386DX laptop computer. Oximetry, pulse rate and signal amplitude data were sampled 60 times a minute and displayed by SatmasterTM (EMG Scientific) on the computer screen. On completion of the study the data were downloaded to disk for subsequent analysis. Satmaster was programmed to invalidate zero signal strength data occurring with probe disconnection. Each oximetry profile was examined by one of the investigators and artefactual desaturation episodes attributed to probe movement were discarded before compilation of the data (Jones et al, 1992). An acute desaturation episode for the purpose of this study was defined as a decrease in oxygen saturation of more than 2% to less than 95% for more than 15 sec duration.

Patients were randomly allocated to receive either pethidine 1 mg kg⁻¹ and atropine 0.02 mg kg⁻¹ intramuscularly one and a half hour before surgery (n=10), or midazolam 0.5 mg kg⁻¹ and atropine 0.02 mg kg⁻¹ orally, two hours before surgery (n=10). EMLA emulsion cream 2 g (lignocaine 25 mg g⁻¹ and prilocaine 25 mg g⁻¹) was also applied to the dorsum of the hand with premedication administration to facilitate painless i.v. cannula insertion in the operating suite. In the operating suite a standard anaesthetic technique was administered to both groups of patients. Induction was with fentanyl 1 µg kg⁻¹ and propofol 2 mg kg⁻¹, the patient was paralysed with atracurium 0.5 mg kg⁻¹, the trachea intubated and the lungs ventilated to normocapnia.

A subjective assessment of tonsillar size and a graded view of glottal exposure were noted during direct laryngoscopy (Cormack and Lehane, 1984). Thereafter anaesthesia was maintained with 67% nitrous oxide and 1.0-1.5% isoflurane in oxygen, with additional increments of fentanyl $1 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}\text{hr}^{-1}$ and atracurium 0.2 mg kg^{-1} every 30 min, administered as required. At the completion of surgery neuromuscular blockade was antagonised with neostigmine 0.05 mg kg^{-1} and atropine 0.04 mg kg^{-1} , extubated 'awake' observing the usual clinical criteria for adequate neuromuscular function (Viby Mogensen, 1982), transferred to the recovery room and given oxygen ($F_{\text{I}}\text{O}_2$ 0.28-35) via a Hudson mask until discharge to the ward, thereafter breathing air.

Statistical significance ($p < 0.05$) was determined for age, weight and anaesthetic time data by unpaired t-test; sex and operative procedure data by the Fisher exact probability test, comparison of oxygen saturation data between treatment groups were analysed by the Mann-Whitney rank-sum test and the Wilcoxon signed-rank test was employed for before and after premedication comparison of data in the same patient.

RESULTS

Both groups were comparable for age, weight, sex, anaesthetic time, operative procedure and no child had a history of previous respiratory disease (Table III.1). At direct laryngoscopy all children were found to be Cormack and Lehane grade 1 (Cormack and Lehane, 1984) and no child had tonsillar tissue projecting beyond the palatopharyngeal and palatoglossal arches into the oropharynx.

TABLE III.1 Demographic data. *Interval scale data are mean (SD) and were analysed using the unpaired t test. Nominal scale data were analysed using the Fisher exact probability test.*

Patient data	Pethidine group (n = 10)	Midazolam group (n = 10)	p value
Age (yr)	3.8 (1.8)	4.6 (2.6)	0.44
Weight (kg)	16.3 (5.7)	16.3 (2.3)	1
Anaesthetic time (min)	63.5 (39.9)	58.0 (21.4)	0.71
Sex (male)	9	6	0.15
Operative procedure:			
orthopaedic	4	6	0.32
general surgical	6	4	

A total of 335 hours of oximetric data was collected from 20 children. The total raw data time recorded with a saturation less than 95% in all children was 951.5 min, which after evaluation with the template, resulted in a total of 228 minutes of valid desaturation time during the four study periods ($p < 0.001$). The raw desaturation time in the period after premedication before operation was 132.5 min which after evaluation resulted in 33.5 min of valid desaturation time ($p < 0.03$). There was no difference in mean oxygen saturation between the two groups during the four periods under investigation, nor the mean percentage of time the oxygen saturation was less than 95% (Table **III.2**).

TABLE III.2 Saturation data during the four study periods . *Data are mean (SD)*

Data collection period	Duration of data collection period per patient (hr)		Mean S _p O ₂ (%)		<i>p</i> value (<i>t</i> -test)	Mean percentage of time with an S _p O ₂ < 95%		<i>p</i> value (Mann Whitney <i>U</i> -test)
Groups	Pethidine	Midazolam	Pethidine	Midazolam		Pethidine	Midazolam	
Preoperative night	11.04 (1.22)	9.63 (0.84)	98.9 (0.57)	98.7 (0.67)	0.48	0.2 (0.63)	1.1 (1.85)	0.08
After premedication	1.29 (0.34)	1.80 (0.31)	98.6 (0.84)	98.7 (0.94)	0.81	1.6 (2.90)	2.8 (5.00)	0.49
Recovery area	0.26 (0.13)	0.35 (0.19)	99.4 (0.70)	99.1 (1.20)	0.50	0.6 (1.30)	5.7 (12.10)	0.35
General ward	7.05 (1.05)	6.52 (1.96)	98.5 (0.70)	98.4 (0.84)	0.78	0.8 (1.30)	1.1 (1.40)	0.60

Within group comparison of the percentage of time recorded with an oxygen saturation < 95% during the preoperative night and during the period after premedication, prior to transfer to the operating suite, revealed no significant difference (Table III.3).

TABLE III.3 A comparison of saturation data before and after premedication. Data are mean (SD).

Groups	Pethidine group n = 10		Midazolam group n = 10	
	<i>Mean % of time with an $S_pO_2 < 95\%$</i>	<i>Desaturation episodes hr^{-1} with an $S_pO_2 < 95\%$ for > 15 sec</i>	<i>Mean % of time with an $S_pO_2 < 95\%$</i>	<i>Desaturation episodes hr^{-1} with an $S_pO_2 < 95\%$ for > 15 sec</i>
Preoperative night	0.2 (0.63)	0.36 (0.62)	1.1 (1.85)	0.65 (0.73)
After premedication	1.6 (2.90)	1.48 (2.60)	2.8 (5.00)	1.82 (3.47)
<i>p</i> value (Wilcoxon)	0.11	0.37	0.34	0.51

Furthermore, a between group comparison in the post premedication period of the incidence of desaturation episodes per hour below 95% and of greater than 15 seconds duration, revealed no significant difference ($p=0.8$), nor was the patient's post-premedication incidence of desaturation episodes significantly different from the preoperative incidence (Table III.3). Twenty four (65%) of the 37 valid post premedication desaturation episodes occurred 45 to 105 minutes after premedication administration.

Following premedication, only two patients (one from each group) recorded 5 or more desaturation episodes per hour with an $S_pO_2 < 95\%$ and >15 sec duration, and a genuine desaturation less than 80% for longer than 15 seconds was not recorded in any patients, at any time during the study. The minimum S_pO_2 recorded after premedication in either group was 85% and the longest duration of a particular episode was 75 seconds to a lowest saturation of 91%.

DISCUSSION

This study demonstrates that in otherwise healthy children, the use of two common premedication regimens employing either pethidine or midazolam, does not significantly depress oxygen saturation. These findings are at variance with previous studies in healthy children, one of which showed that both intramuscular and intranasal midazolam (0.2 mg kg^{-1}) caused a significant decrease in arterial oxygen saturation from baseline values (de Santos et al, 1991). However Rose and colleagues, using intranasal midazolam demonstrated no change in oxygen saturation levels 15 minutes after administration (Rose et al, 1990). In another study, premedication with rectal midazolam ($0.35\text{-}0.45 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$) lowered oxygen saturation thirty minutes after administration when compared with a placebo (Roelofse and de-V-Joubert, 1990).

These apparently conflicting results can be explained by our ability to exclude movement-induced artefactual desaturation data before determining the incidence of genuine desaturation episodes (Langton and Hanning, 1990). Patient movement resulted in an overestimation of desaturation time by 75% in this study, confirming similar findings in patients following spinal surgery (Jones et al, 1992). Oxygen desaturation which induces a motor response will not result in rejection by application of the template because the desaturation pattern will not be preceded by a concomitant change in signal amplitude. However genuine oxygen desaturation and probe movement could occur together and these data would be rejected by the template. The route of administration of midazolam in children significantly alters bioavailability and the time to peak serum concentration, making comparison with other studies

difficult. Bioequivalence should be present between a 0.2 mg kg^{-1} intramuscular and 0.5 mg kg^{-1} oral dose of midazolam (Payne et al, 1989). Atropine was administered intramuscularly to the pethidine group and orally to the midazolam group. A differential effect on anatomical dead space resulting from different atropine concentration profiles is a possibility (Olsson et al, 1983), however anatomical dead space reportedly increased by only 12% following intravenous atropine in adults (Nunn et al, 1964) and therefore it is unlikely that the different route of administration of atropine significantly influenced oxygen saturation in this study. Peak serum concentration of midazolam occurs 15 minutes after intramuscular and nasal administration, and 45 to 120 minutes after oral administration. Peak serum concentrations should coincide with the onset of sedation and any decrease in arterial oxygen saturation should be most obvious at this time (de Santos et al, 1991). Other investigators have demonstrated that slow intravenous administration of midazolam to healthy volunteers provides no independent protection from respiratory depression, and respiratory complications are more closely related to the total dose of midazolam (Alexander et al, 1992, Dahan and Ward, 1991). The peak incidence of the recorded minor desaturation episodes in our study occurred 45 to 105 minutes after administration of both pethidine and midazolam. It is possible that our premedication regimen was not as sedative as those used in the Spanish study and did not depress respiration to the same degree, therefore resulting in a lower incidence of recorded desaturation episodes. Also, this study population may not match those in the other series, but a pharmacokinetic explanation of our oximetry findings is difficult to establish. The small lean body mass of Chinese children should result in a smaller central volume of distribution, higher peak serum concentration of midazolam, a more

intense level of sedation of shorter duration, and consequently a higher incidence of episodic desaturation (Greenblatt et al, 1984). This was not the case, and in separate work, it was shown that the serum concentration of midazolam 2 hours after oral administration in Chinese children was similar to the serum concentration reported by other workers using a similar dosing regimen in Caucasian children (Jones et al, 1993). Furthermore, none of the children in this study had any predisposition to upper airway obstruction or arterial oxygen desaturation and all were ASA class I. There are no published desaturation studies following pethidine premedication but a low clinically relevant incidence would be expected because the drug has been used for many years and significant data would have been previously reported. Peak respiratory depression in adults is observed within an hour of receiving intramuscular pethidine and there is a return towards baseline values commencing at about 2 hours (Edwards et al, 1982). Pethidine premedication did not depress ventilation in the children in this study to a degree where significant arterial oxygen desaturation occurred, nor to a level that was clinically or statistically significantly different from each child's own sleep S_pO_2 .

This study showed that neither oral midazolam 0.5 mg kg^{-1} , nor intramuscular pethidine 1.0 mg kg^{-1} given as premedicants, significantly depressed S_pO_2 in otherwise healthy children presenting for minor surgical procedures. These findings have recently been endorsed by the work of Tyler and colleagues (Tyler et al, 1995). Furthermore, raw oximetry data requires careful evaluation and elimination of movement artefact before conclusions regarding the incidence of desaturation can be drawn. If analgesia is not a premedication requirement, then oral midazolam confers

the advantage over pethidine of avoiding the pain of an intramuscular injection, without compromising oxygen saturation.

Having established that midazolam 0.5 mg kg^{-1} is an effective premedication regimen in children and that no dangerous effects were detected during the study, the next chapter investigates its sedative and anxiolytic properties. The association between these effects and serum midazolam concentrations was also determined.

EFFECT OF MIDAZOLAM PREMEDICATION

ON PREOPERATIVE

PSYCHOMOTOR PERFORMANCE, MOOD AND SEDATION

Anaesthesia for paediatric ambulatory surgery aims to rapidly return the child to a "home-readiness" state and agents with suitable pharmacokinetics are now applied in the outpatient setting (White, 1986). Pharmacological attenuation of the normal response to fear presents a child who is co-operative and calm when separated from his parents and during induction of anaesthesia, and this controlled behaviour also helps allay parental anxiety immediately prior to surgery (Westhorpe, 1990). Circumcision is a suitable surgical procedure for paediatric ambulatory surgery because of the reduction in displacement anxiety for the child, decreased exposure to nosocomial infection, short operative duration, low incidence of complications, and the ease and reliability of providing effective postoperative pain relief (Hannallah and Epstein, 1991). Oral, sweetened midazolam is considered a suitable agent for inducing anxiolysis but some anaesthetists hold the view that preoperative midazolam administration delays recovery and that proper psychological preparation makes premedicant drug administration to a child unnecessary (White, 1985).

The aim of this study was to evaluate the premedicant effect of midazolam on sedation, mood and psychomotor performance in children undergoing circumcision.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Thirty ASA grade I Chinese children, aged 4-12 yr, undergoing circumcision for treatment of phimosis were investigated. Children were excluded from the study if there was a history of asthma or allergies; previous adverse anaesthetic experience; halothane anaesthesia within the previous 1 month; hepatic, renal, respiratory, cardiac or haematological disease; developmental disability or age less than 4 yr. The day prior to surgery, each child was familiarised with a post-box toy and the completion time of his best seven attempts recorded. The children also underwent a Wechsler intelligence scale (WISC-R) coding performance assessment, matched for race (HK-WISC Manual, 1981). These assessments were performed by the same investigator at all assessment times, for all patients in the study.

On the day of surgery, EMLA emulsion cream 2 g (lignocaine 25 mg g⁻¹ and prilocaine 25 mg g⁻¹) was applied to the cubital fossa of the non-dominant arm 2 hr before premedication with midazolam 0.5 mg kg⁻¹ (maximum dose 15 mg) and atropine 0.02 mg kg⁻¹ by mouth. On administration of the premedicant, a 23-gauge cannula was inserted into a vein underlying the EMLA-pretreated area. Blood samples (1.0 ml) were collected into tubes containing lithium-heparin (Sarstedt LH/5) for measurement of the plasma concentration of midazolam at 30, 60, 90 and 120 min after oral premedication administration. At each of the blood collection times the child was offered the post-box toy and his fastest completion time at a single attempt recorded. The child was also asked to complete the WISC-R coding test within 2 min and scored according to his performance. The raw WISC-R data was then scaled to

produce score equivalents adjusted for the child's age. The child's best, preoperative, unmedicated performance was divided by the child's postmedication performance at each assessment point for both the PBT and WISC-R, and the data expressed as the post box toy completion ratio (PBTR) and WISC-R scale ratio.

The child's co-operation and mood level were recorded using a structured observation score (Krane et al, 1987)(Table III.4).

TABLE III.4: Structured observation score (*modified from Krane et al, 1987*)

MOOD	Score
laughing, euphoric	1
happy, playful	2
calm, drowsy, sleepy	3
irritable but calmed by mother	4
screaming, inconsolable	5

Level of sedation was assessed using the modified Steward coma scale (Robertson et al, 1977)(Table III.5).

TABLE III.5: Modified Steward coma scale (Robertson et al, 1977)

Airway		Consciousness		Activity	
opening mouth or coughing on command	3	fully awake, eyes open, conversing	4	raising one arm on command	2
no voluntary cough, clear airway without support	2	lightly asleep, eyes opening intermittently	3	non-purposeful movement	1
obstruction on neck flexion, airway clear without support on extension	1	eyes open on command or in response to name	2	not moving	0
airway obstructed without support	0	responding to ear pinching	1		
		not responding	0		
Add scores for Airway, Consciousness and Activity:			TOTAL SCORE :		

On arrival in the operating suite, all children were assessed by the same anaesthetist as agitated or crying, aware and apparently anxiety free, drowsy, or asleep but responsive to command (Jones et al, 1990). The awake children were then asked if they felt frightened and if so, to specify the cause of their anxiety.

Plasma samples were obtained from blood after centrifugation for 15 min at 3000 r.p.m. and stored at -20°C before assay for midazolam employing an HPLC technique with UV detection at 220 nm using a programmable multiwavelength detector (Waters 490E). Midazolam in plasma and internal standard flurazepam

buffered with sodium dihydrogen phosphate (0.1M) at pH 9, were extracted into 5 ml organic solvent mixture (diethyl ether and dichloromethane in the ratio 60:40 v/v). The organic extract was evaporated to dryness under nitrogen and the residue was re-dissolved in methanol (80 μ l) and approximately 30 μ l of the methanolic concentration was injected into the HPLC system. The mobile phase consisted of 32% acetonitrile in 0.04 M sodium dihydrogen phosphate buffer (containing 0.1% triethylamine) at pH 7.0. The flow rate was set at 1.5 ml min⁻¹. A C₁₈ reverse phase cartridge column (Nova-pak, Waters) linked to a C₁₈ pre-column was used and the eluate was measured by a UV detector set at 220 nm. The calibration graphs were linear over the range 40 to 2000 ng ml⁻¹ with coefficients of variation ranging from 1.5 to 11.8%. The between-batch coefficient of variance at 40 ng ml⁻¹ was 4.8% and 1.5% at 500 ng ml⁻¹. The limit for detection for midazolam was 10 ng ml⁻¹. The HPLC assay was found to be specific and selective.

Correlation between the post box toy and WISC-R raw data was determined using Pearson product-moment correlation. To test any association between serum midazolam concentrations and the psychomotor performance ratios, Spearman rank correlation was employed using the computer interactive statistical program CSS:StatisticaTM.

RESULTS

The 30 children had a mean age of 7.1(2.3)[4-12] yr and a mean body weight of 20.6(8.7)[15-37] kg. On arrival in the operating suite only one child was asleep and no child was crying or appeared distressed. On specific questioning, 20 children endorsed their objective appearance, stating that they were not frightened. The remaining children were frightened of either pain and needles, going to sleep and dying, strangers, or being separated from their mother Table III.6.

TABLE III.6 Preoperative mood following oral midazolam (0.5 mg kg⁻¹) premedication (n = 30).

Objective preoperative premedication assessment (n)		Subjective preoperative premedication assessment (n)	
asleep/drowsy	1	not frightened	20
awake	29	pain/needles	10
crying	0	dying/sleeping	9
		leaving mummy	5
		strangers	3

The mean fastest preoperative post box toy completion time for the 30 children was 18.1(5.9)[11-37] sec and the mean highest preoperative WISC-R scale performance was 17.1(2.4)[11-19]. The preoperative PBTR and WISC-R ratio at different times after premedication are shown in Table III.7. The relationship between

midazolam concentrations, PBTR and WISC-R scale ratio are shown in Figure III.2.

Raw preoperative serum midazolam concentration data for the 30 children are tabulated in *Appendix G*.

TABLE III.7 Preoperative PBTR and WISC-R ratio at different times after premedication. *Data are mean (SD)[range].*

Time after premedication (min)	PBTR	WISC-R ratio
30	0.67(0.18)[0.30-0.97]	0.84(0.23)[0.33-1.17]
60	0.69(0.16)[0.36-0.94]	0.79(0.21)[0.21-1.06]
90	0.74(0.16)[0.43-1.10]	0.88(0.20)[0.38-1.20]
120	0.75(0.15)[0.48-1.10]	0.91(0.25)[0.16-1.55]

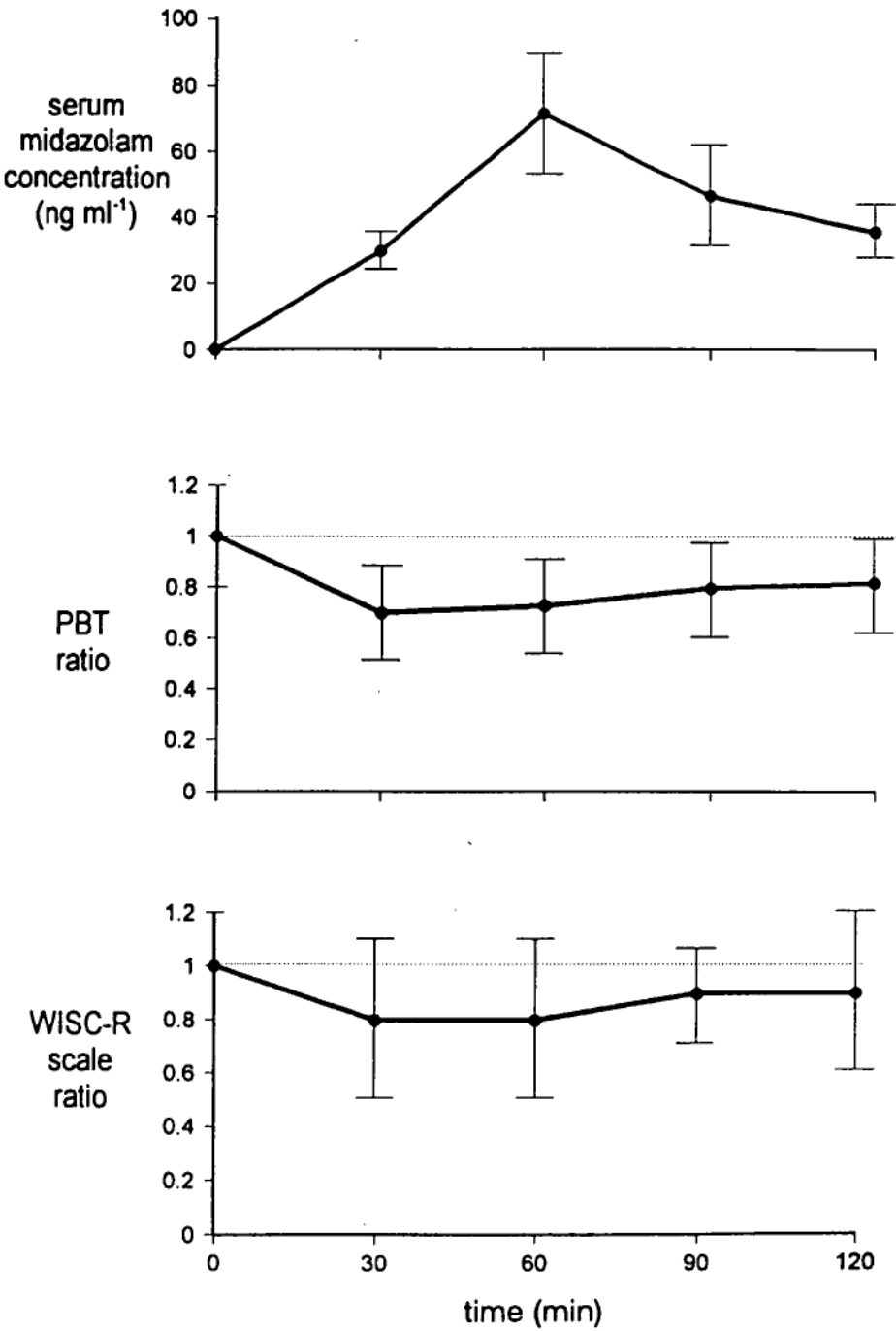


FIGURE III.2 Preoperative serum midazolam concentration, post box toy ratio (PBTR) and WISC-R scale ratio (n = 30).

There was a significant decline from preoperative unmedicated, fastest performance for both PBT and WISC-R, 30 minutes after midazolam administration ($p < 0.001$, 0.003 respectively), however there was improvement over the following 90 min with WISC-R performance almost returning to unpremedicated levels. Midazolam concentrations peaked to $72.2(18.7)$ ng ml⁻¹ at the 60 minute sample point and declined to a mean preoperative level of $35.7(7.9)$ ng ml⁻¹ at 2 hr. Plotting the log of the PBTR and the WISC-R scale ratio data for all the preoperative assessments demonstrated poor correlation ($r=0.3$) (Figure III.3). Correlation between serum midazolam concentration and the WISC-R assessment was also poor ($r = 0.01$) and with PBTR, only slightly better ($r = 0.2$) (Figure III.4 & .5).

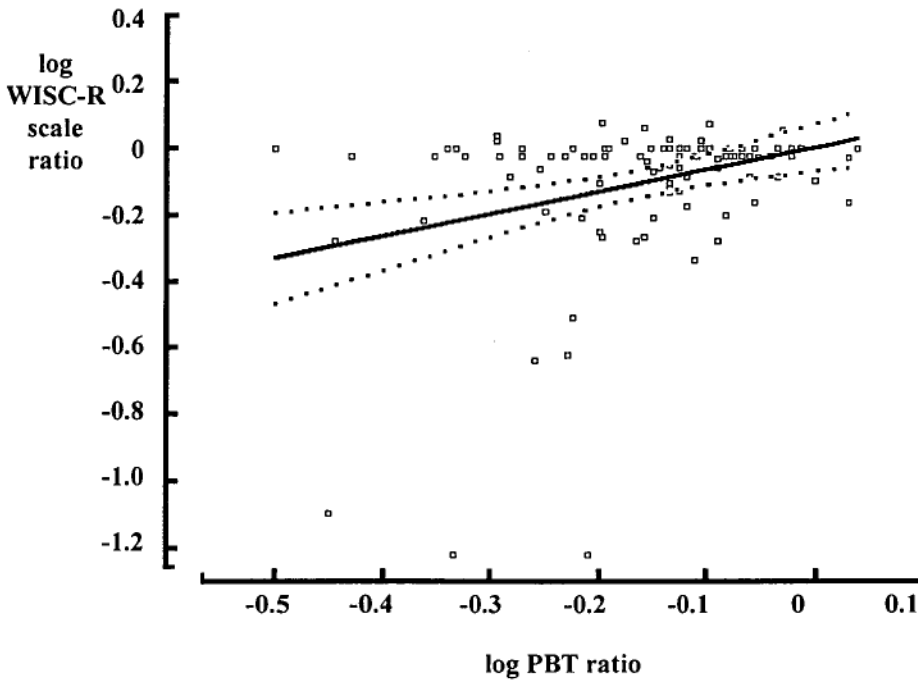


FIGURE III.3 Preoperative logarithmic data plot of WISC-R scale ratio and PBT ratio ($n = 30$). Dotted lines represent 95% confidence intervals.

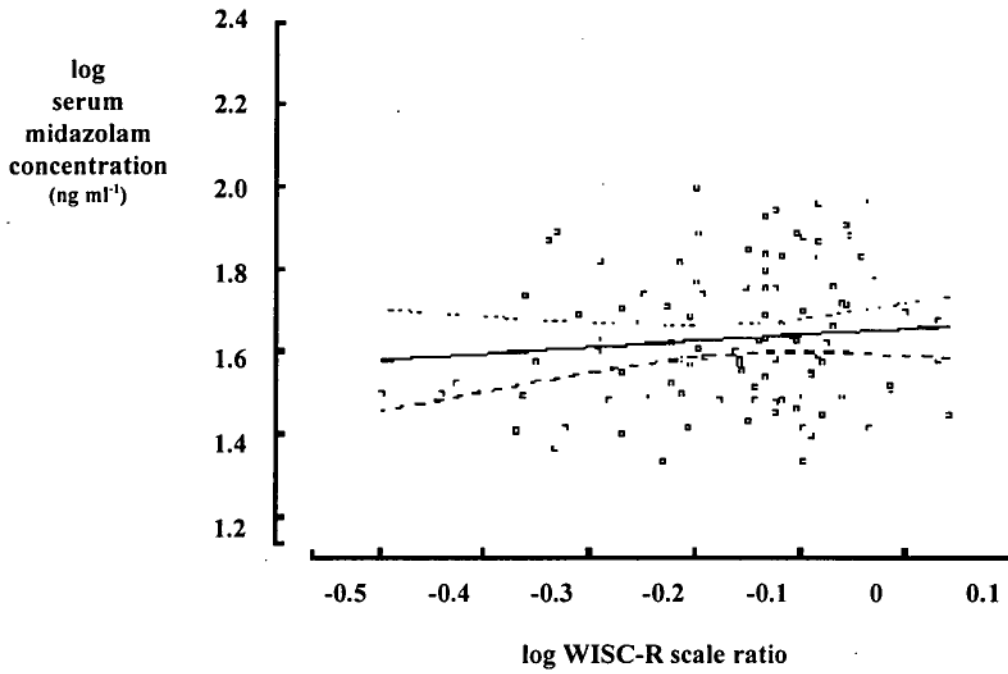


FIGURE III.4 Preoperative logarithmic data plot of serum midazolam concentration (ng ml⁻¹) and WISC-R scale ratio (n = 30). Dotted lines represent 95% confidence intervals.

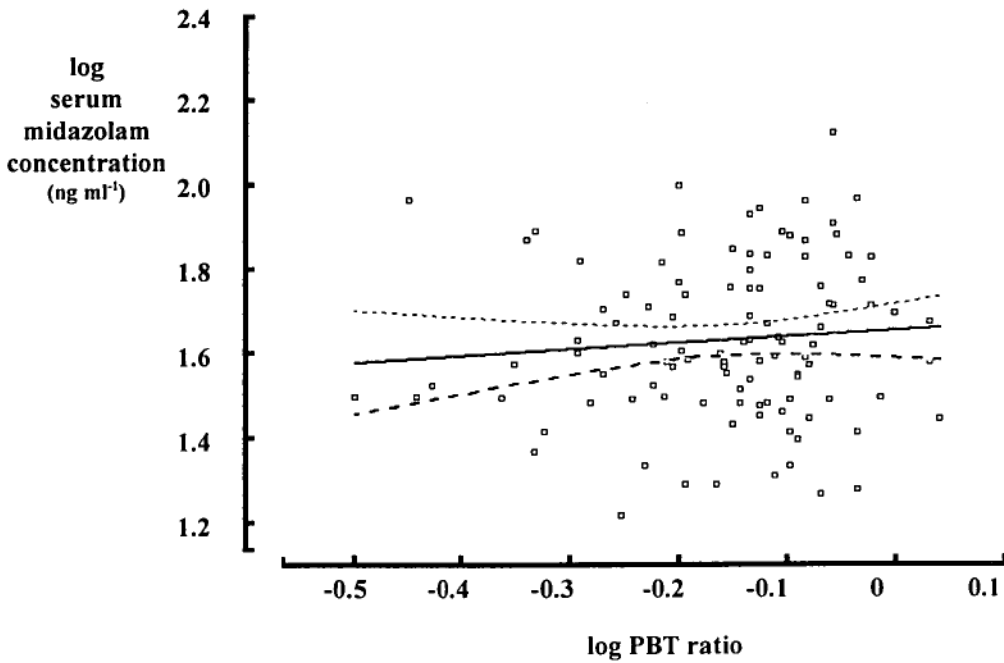


FIGURE III.5 Preoperative logarithmic data plot of serum midazolam concentration (ng ml⁻¹) and post box toy (PBT) ratio (n = 30). Dotted lines represent 95% confidence intervals.

Only one child refused assessment on two occasions when presented with the psychomotor tests after premedication. The two youngest children in the study were classified as irritable on a further 3 occasions but were calmed by mother and performed the assessment. All other children were either happy and playful or sleepy. Nine children went to sleep following administration of midazolam with the incidence being evenly distributed throughout the two hour study period (Table III.8).

TABLE III.8 Sedative effect and mood of the children at the times of assessment following midazolam premedication.

Time after midazolam premedication (min)	Incidence of			
	children asleep (n = 9)	unhappy children (n = 2)	PBT refusal (n = 1)	happy / playful (n = 28)
30	3	2	1	28
60	4	0	1	29
90	4	1	0	28
120	4	2	0	28

n = the total number of children asleep, unhappy or unco-operative,
happy and co-operative.

DISCUSSION

The aim oral premedication is to obtain a co-operative patient prior to induction of anaesthesia who will accept the face mask or insertion of a venous cannula without distress. The place of midazolam 0.5 mg kg^{-1} as an oral premedicant in children appears now to be established as effective (McMillan et al, 1992) and the results of this study endorse this view. The incidence of sleep at each preoperative assessment point was equally distributed over the two hour period and appeared unrelated to serum midazolam levels. Midazolam is extensively bound to plasma proteins (94-98%) and small changes in binding may cause large alterations in clinical response (Amrein et al, 1988). There are no published data describing the variation between children in midazolam binding, and although the unbound fraction of midazolam may show a correlation with sedation. Sleep incidence data in this study may have been confounded by other factors, such as, the age of the child, the time of day when surgery was conducted and the position of the child on the operating list. Furthermore, the relatively frequent psychomotor assessments and blood sampling combined to produce a relatively stressful preoperative environment for the child which was not conducive to sleep. Weldon and colleagues found the sedative effect of midazolam to be maximal 30 min after oral administration (Weldon et al, 1992). Although most of the children in this study were not asleep at the 30 min sample point, 56% of them scored their poorest psychomotor performance at this time.

Patient co-operation lowers anxiety levels during induction of anaesthesia and this improves performance of the staff delivering care. The pre-induction serum

midazolam levels in this study were in the adult anxiolytic range of 20-50 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ (Lauven and Kulka, 1990; Nilsson, 1991). All children arrived in the operating room appearing quiet and calm and specific fears were difficult to elicit. Even with explicit questioning of the older children, 66% denied feeling frightened. The mean preinduction midazolam concentration was 35.7 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ and children who expressed their fears did not demonstrate low serum midazolam concentrations. Younger children who admitted fear demonstrated a non-specific anxiety, usually responding in the affirmative to all questions. Weldon and colleagues showed that 95% of the children separated from their parents within 45 min of premedication had satisfactory separation scores, compared to only 66% of those separated after 45 min (Weldon et al, 1992). Parnis and colleagues found that patients who received midazolam 0.5 mg kg^{-1} were more likely to be asleep or awake and calm than those receiving a placebo, diazepam or midazolam 0.25 mg kg^{-1} (Parnis et al, 1992). Fifty two subjects investigated in studies described in Chapter IV were also premedicated with midazolam 0.5 mg kg^{-1} and atropine administered orally 2 hr preoperatively and were assessed preinduction. Ninety percent were awake and apparently anxiety free, two patients were asleep and three children were visibly distressed when presenting for induction of anaesthesia. Vetter compared children receiving midazolam, diazepam or placebo and concluded that even without premedication, a majority of the children did not react negatively to an impending anaesthetic (Vetter, 1993). However Vetter found midazolam to be superior to the placebo in facilitating the initial acceptance of the anaesthetic induction mask. The results of our premedication assessments are more in line with the findings of McMillan and colleagues (McMillan et al, 1992) than those of Feld et al (Feld et al, 1990) who reported a relatively low incidence of

"excellent" anxiolysis following midazolam premedication. There are many differences between each of the studies referred to. The age range of the patients, differing times of evaluation and crude method of mood assessment, all limit the usefulness of "separation anxiety" comparisons (Hindmarch and Bhatti, 1987). Coma score was recorded but computed data provided no relevant clinical information, as even children who fell asleep were easily awakened.

This study confirms the work of Payne and co-workers who measured peak serum concentrations at 60 minutes following oral administration of midazolam 0.5 mg kg⁻¹ (Payne et al, 1989). The mean peak midazolam concentration measured during this study at 60 min was 72.2 µg ml⁻¹, which falls within the sedative range and well below hypnotic levels. The occurrence of sleep at 60 min was randomly observed and no relationship between serum midazolam concentrations and sleep incidence was demonstrated. Furthermore, peak serum levels did not correlate closely with the maximum decline in psychomotor performance, which occurred 30 minutes after drug administration in this study. The early maximum decline in performance may have been due to lack of practice rather than drug effect; the latter being masked by subsequent performance improvement despite the increasing serum midazolam concentration. The degree of performance impairment was the same for both tests but correlation between the WISC-R and PBTR data was weak. This may be explained by the relative weighting of the cognitive and physical components of each test (Sanders, 1991). The WISC-R required sophisticated matching of symbols and shapes but was not physically demanding, requiring only legible writing in a designated space. The PBT required recognition of simple shapes but placement in the matching holes

required small muscle control and co-ordination. An observed postoperative improvement in correlation between the WISC-R and PBTR may be attributed to a reduction in effect of this cognitive and physical difference, due to the residual influence of general anaesthesia. Although the PBTR lacks discriminant efficiency, better methods of assessment such as critical flicker fusion threshold or choice reaction time, are very difficult to assess in children (Hindmarch and Bhatti, 1987). Most studies in children have simply used clinical parameters such as awakening or eye opening, to assess recovery (Weldon et al, 1992). However, children seem to enjoy post box toy completion assessment and the test is relatively easy to perform, and as such provides a useful assessment of "street-readiness" for discharge and a measurement of the gross effect of premedication on psychomotor performance.

This study suggests that the optimal timing for oral administration of the premedicant midazolam 0.5 mg kg^{-1} is one hour prior to transfer to the operating room so that serum drug concentrations will be maximal and anxiolytic at the time of induction. However, maximal serum drug concentrations and desired effect do not always correlate. The lowest post box toy performance occurred at 30 minutes, endorsing the parental separation and face mask acceptance data of Weldon and colleagues, who recommend timing of premedication 30 to 60 minutes prior to induction of anaesthesia (Weldon et al, 1992). The sedative and anxiolytic effects of the drug help to provide a quiet environment for a smooth induction of anaesthesia, particularly on those occasions when it is impossible to avoid parental separation.

CHAPTER IV

MIDAZOLAM

AS AN

INDUCTION AGENT

Pharmacokinetics of midazolam and flumazenil	80
Pharmacokinetics of propofol	98
Haemodynamic changes on induction of anaesthesia with midazolam, propofol or thiopentone	115

PHARMACOKINETICS OF MIDAZOLAM AND FLUMAZENIL

The previous chapters have endorsed the findings of other workers and demonstrated that midazolam is a suitable premedicant for use in paediatric patients (Tolia et al, 1991; Feld et al, 1990). Flumazenil has been shown to provide rapid, effective and safe antagonism of the hypnotic effects of midazolam (Sanders et al, 1991). The disposition of midazolam in children has been studied by a number of workers (Salonen et al, 1987; Payne et al, 1989; Rey et al, 1991) but the contemporaneous disposition of flumazenil in children has not previously been reported.

This present study was undertaken to measure simultaneous midazolam and flumazenil pharmacokinetics and their relationship to psychomotor performance in children in the early postoperative period.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Twelve ASA grade I Chinese children, aged 5-9 yr, undergoing circumcision for the treatment of phimosis were studied. Children were excluded from the study if there was a history of asthma or allergies; previous adverse anaesthetic experience; anaesthesia within the previous month; hepatic, renal, respiratory, cardiac or haematological disease; developmental disability or age less than 4 years.

The day prior to surgery, each child was familiarised with a post-box toy and the completion time of his best performance on seven attempts recorded. On the day of surgery, the patient was premedicated with midazolam 0.5 mg kg^{-1} (maximum dose 15 mg) and atropine 0.02 mg kg^{-1} by mouth 2 h before operation. EMLA emulsion cream 2 g (lignocaine 25 mg g^{-1} and prilocaine 25 mg g^{-1}) was applied to the dorsum of the hand and the contralateral cubital fossa. On arrival in the operating suite, all children were assessed by the same anaesthetist and recorded as agitated or crying, aware and apparently anxiety free, drowsy, or asleep but responsive to command (Jones et al, 1990). A 23-gauge cannula was inserted into a vein underlying each EMLA-pretreated area. Anaesthesia was induced with alfentanil $5 \mu \text{ kg}^{-1}$ i.v. followed 60 sec later by midazolam 0.5 mg kg^{-1} administered over 30 seconds (Salonen et al, 1987). Time zero was taken at completion of the midazolam injection. The child was given atracurium 0.5 mg kg^{-1} , intubated and thereafter, anaesthesia was maintained with 67% nitrous oxide and 0.5% isoflurane in oxygen via a Mapleson F breathing system with hand ventilation to an end-tidal carbon dioxide tension of 5 kPa. A caudal injection of 0.25% bupivacaine 0.5 ml kg^{-1} was administered to all patients. Routine

monitoring devices included an electrocardiograph, non-invasive arterial pressure recorder, pulse oximeter, capnograph and inspired oxygen concentration (Datex, Cardiocap). At the end of surgery, muscle relaxation was reversed with neostigmine and atropine, the patient extubated and ventilation assisted with 100% oxygen by mask and Mapleson F circuit until spontaneous respiration had resumed. Six minutes after the administration of neostigmine, a $10 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ flumazenil bolus was given followed 60 seconds later by commencement of a $5 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ flumazenil infusion which was continued until the child could positively identify himself.

The duration of anaesthesia and cardio-respiratory data during surgery and recovery were recorded. The dose of flumazenil injected, the time from flumazenil bolus injection to spontaneous eye opening and the time until the patient could identify himself were recorded. The child's mood on awakening was assessed by an independent observer using a structured observation score (Krane et al, 1987) and systolic arterial pressure, heart rate, ventilatory frequency and modified Steward coma scale (Robertson et al, 1977) were recorded at each blood sampling time after awakening. Any side effects occurring during and following flumazenil administration were noted and the time at which any child went back to sleep after eye-opening in recovery. Immediately when the patient became co-operative he was encouraged to complete the post-box toy in the quickest possible time. The child was offered the toy at 10, 30, 60, 120, 180 and 240 min after flumazenil administration and his fastest completion time on a single attempt recorded by the same investigator. At each assessment, a post-box toy completion-time ratio (the postoperative post-box toy

completion time / the child's best timed performance on the day prior to surgery) was calculated.

Blood samples (1.0 ml) were collected into tubes containing lithium heparin for measurement of the plasma concentration of midazolam immediately prior to induction of anaesthesia and then at 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 15, 20, 30 min and immediately before flumazenil was given. Subsequent samples were then taken at 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 15, 20, 30, 60, 120, 180, and 240 min after flumazenil administration. Post-operatively a bulked, 24 h urine specimen was collected from each of the patients. Plasma was obtained from blood after centrifugation for 15 min at 3000 r.p.m.. Plasma samples were then stored at -20°C before assay. Flumazenil and midazolam in plasma and urine samples were determined simultaneously using a high performance liquid chromatographic (HPLC) technique with UV detection at 220 nm using a programmable photodiode array detector (Waters 994) as described in the *Chapter II*. Flumazenil profiles were analysed using the statistical moment theory to obtain pharmacokinetic parameters as described in the methods section of this thesis (Gibaldi and Perrier, 1982).

RESULTS

On arrival in the operating suite all children were assessed as awake and appearing calm, but on specific questioning two of the children were frightened of intravenous cannula placement for induction and two children expressed fear of postoperative pain. The mean (SD) [range] maximum increase in pulse rate and systolic pressure calculated during the induction period were 22.3 (24.4)[-28 to 54] beats min⁻¹ and 27.3 (28.3) [108 - 2] mm Hg respectively. The induction of anaesthesia was otherwise devoid of side effects. The awakening and cardio-respiratory data associated with flumazenil administration are given in Table IV.1. All patients opened their eyes within 5 min of the commencement of flumazenil administration and were able to give their name within a further 2 minutes. The average dose of flumazenil administered was 27 (6.1) µg kg⁻¹ and the mean (SD) concentration of midazolam on awakening was 163.1 (43.7) ng ml⁻¹.

TABLE IV.1 Demographic, anaesthetic and awakening haemodynamics data in the 12 children. *Data are mean (SD) and [range].*

Age (yr)	6.5 (1.4)	[5 -9]
Weight (kg)	22.0 (6.7)	[14-38.5]
Anaesthesia duration (min)	37.4 (8.4)	[29-58]
Time from giving flumazenil to eyes open (min)	3.1 (1.1)	[1-5]
Time from giving flumazenil to self-identification (min)	4.4 (1.4)	[2-7]
Mean dose of flumazenil administered ($\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$)	27.0 (6.1)	[16.8-39.6]
Mean concentration of flumazenil on awakening (ng ml^{-1})	29.9(16.1)	[7-62]
Mean concentration of midazolam on awakening (ng ml^{-1})	163.1(43.7)	[92-257]
Mean increase in heart rate after flumazenil (beat min^{-1})	8.0 (16.2)	[-24 to +37]
Mean increase in systolic blood pressure after flumazenil (mmHg)	11.5 (17.0)	[-8 to +53]
Mean increase in respiratory rate after flumazenil (breaths min^{-1})	4.3 (5.5)	[-8 to +10]

Psychomotor testing using the post-box toy completion-time ratio showed that, although the children tested had a faster completion time 3 hours postoperatively compared to their own **unpractised** preoperative performance, only one child could match his **best preoperative** performance four hours after operation (Table IV.2). The mean pre-induction midazolam level was 47.1(15.8)[29-38] ng ml^{-1} .

TABLE IV.2 Assessment of the antagonism of midazolam by flumazenil. *Data are mean (SD) and [range].*

Time after flumazenil administration	Toy completion ratio	Mean midazolam level (ng ml ⁻¹)	Mean flumazenil level (ng ml ⁻¹)
10 min (n = 7)	0.31(0.12)[0.17 - 0.50]	147 (34.4) [83 - 197]	32.1(21.5)[14-97]
20 min (n = 2)	0.41 (0.15)[0.31 - 0.52]	131 (29.7) [72 - 184]	19.5(9.5)[8-42]
30 min (n = 8)	0.40(0.12)[0.18 - 0.58]	120 (27.1) [70 - 170]	15.7(9.1)[7-38]
60 min (n = 5)	0.39(0.12)[0.25 - 0.55]	91 (24.6) [52 - 138]	10.1(6.3)[3-23]
120 min (n = 5)	0.44(0.15)[0.17 - 0.55]	59 (15.4) [40 - 87]	4.3(5.6)[0-16]
180 min (n = 5)	0.63(0.16)[0.44 - 0.83]	41 (9.5) [29 - 55]	not detected
240 min (n = 10)	0.65(0.18) [0.34 - 0.95]	27 (10.6) [15 - 52]	not detected

not detected = flumazenil concentration below limit of detection

Half the children awoke irritable, crying and refusing to play with the toy and in total, 9 children refused to play on 30 occasions during the four hour postoperative study period. Although the study group is small, the children who were happy on awakening had the highest mean (SD) midazolam levels 181 (62.9) ng ml⁻¹; those children that were sleepy had the lowest mean (SD) flumazenil levels 17.3 (7.6) ng ml⁻¹ and those that were crying had the highest flumazenil levels 37.8 (13.6) ng ml⁻¹. Six children fell asleep again after giving their name and playing with the post-box toy but all were easily awakened (Table IV.3).

TABLE IV.3 Resedation and mood assessment following flumazenil administration. *Data are mean (SD) and [range].*

	Midazolam level on awakening (ng ml ⁻¹)	Flumazenil level on awakening (ng ml ⁻¹)
Average time of resedation after flumazenil (n=6) 80 (20.6) [60 - 120] (min)	158.2 (19.5) [133 - 183]	29.3 (15.0) [7 - 52]
Toy refusal on awakening (n = 6)	139.4 (25.8) [164 - 92]	25.4 (11.4) [7 - 42]
Mood on awakening:		
happy, playful (n = 3)	181 (62.9) [103 - 257]	26.7 (17.9) [14 - 52]
calm, drowsy (n = 3)	168.7 (25.80) [133 - 193]	17.3 (7.6) [7 - 25]
irritable, crying (n = 6)	151.3 (34.5) [92 - 208]	37.8 (13.60) [62 -23]

Mean blood concentrations of midazolam and flumazenil declined in all patients (Figures IV.1 and IV.2). Flumazenil was not detectable at three hours and in 7 patients at 2 hours. Compartmental analysis of midazolam revealed a three-compartment model with elimination from a central compartment. The pharmacokinetic findings are summarised in Table IV.4.

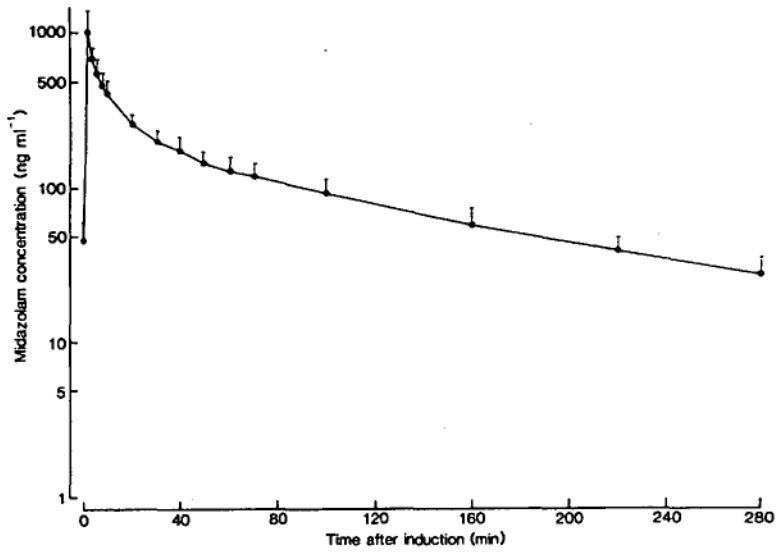


FIGURE IV.1 Mean (SD) serum midazolam concentrations

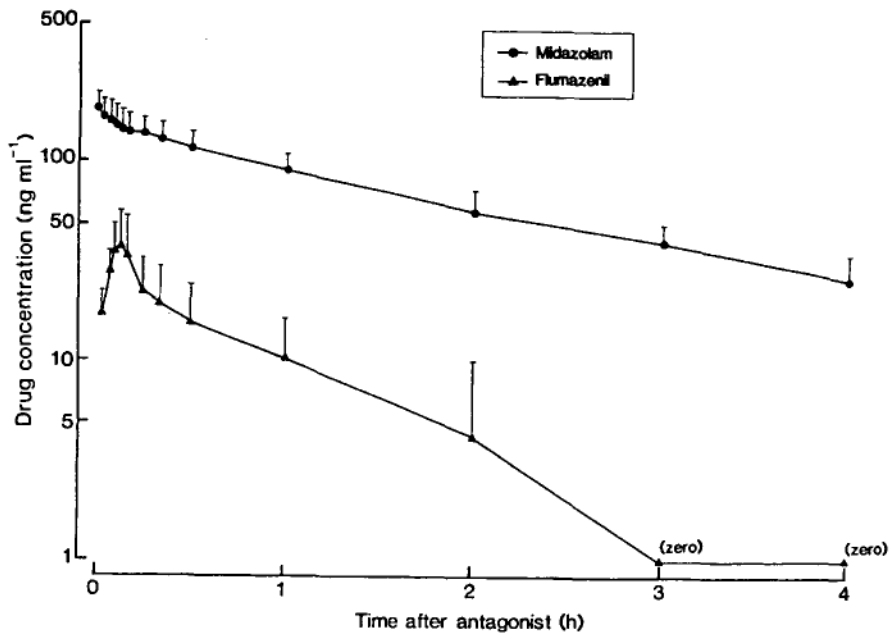


FIGURE IV.2 Simultaneous mean (SD) serum flumazenil and midazolam concentrations.

TABLE IV.4 Pharmacokinetic findings in the 12 children. V^{ss} = Volumes of distribution at steady state, V' = equilibrium, V = volume of the central compartment, Cl = total body clearance, $T_{1/2}^{\alpha}$, $T_{1/2}^{\beta}$, $T_{1/2}^{\gamma}$ = half lives of the three phases and rate constants mean (SD) [range].

	Midazolam	Flumazenil
V^{ss} (litre) (litre kg^{-1})	41.1 (18.9) [21.5 - 93.7] 1.87 (0.57) [1.15 - 2.93]	21.0 (7.1) [10.3 - 32.7] 1.0 (0.2) [0.7 - 1.6]
V' (litre) (litre kg^{-1})	48.8 (22.2) [25.2 - 106.5] 2.2 (0.7) [1.2 - 3.3]	20.5 (6.7) [9.8 - 31.2] 0.9 (0.2) [0.7 - 1.6]
V (litre) (litre kg^{-1})	7.2 (5.6) [1.8 - 23.3] 0.31 (0.17) [0.09 - 0.73]	
Cl (litre min^{-1}) (ml $min^{-1}kg^{-1}$)	344 (150) [199 - 736] 15.37 (3.16) [11.02 - 23.00]	469.83 (239.52) [136.27 - 963.17] 20.57 (6.92) [7.29 - 30.85]
Terminal $T_{1/2}$	101.7 (31.9) [59.7 - 179.4]	35.3 (13.8) [21.5 - 75.5]
$T_{1/2}^{\alpha}$ (min)	2.55 (1.37) [0.84 - 5.00]	
$T_{1/2}^{\beta}$ (min)	16.1 (6.8) [3.9 - 26.0]	
$T_{1/2}^{\gamma}$ (min)	107.0 (30.2) [65.0 - 189.0]	
k_{31} (h^{-1})	1.03 (0.37) [0.55 - 1.84]	
k_{10} (h^{-1})	3.53 (1.74) [1.76 - 7.06]	
k_{13} (h^{-1})	4.5 (3.83) [0.89 - 14.20]	
k_{12} (h^{-1})	8.17 (6.93) [1.49 - 24.38]	
k_{21} (h^{-1})	8.30 (5.52) [3.49 - 23.67]	
$k_{31} : k_{10}$	0.35 (0.18) [0.12 - 0.75]	
$k_{12} : k_{21}$	1.14 (0.80) [0.06 - 3.00]	

Bulked (0 - 24 h) urine samples were successfully obtained in 10 out of the 12 children. No unchanged midazolam was detected in these samples. A wide variation in the recovery, as a percentage of dose, of the hydroxyl metabolites and their glucuronides was observed: α - hydroxymidazolam (0 to 0.23%), α - hydroxymidazolam glucuronide (0.64 to 13.2%), 4 - hydroxymidazolam (0.03 to 1.12%) and 4 - hydroxymidazolam glucuronide (0.01 to 1.15%). One child was an extensive hydroxylator having a high recovery of hydroxyl metabolites and the glucuronide (denoted by the upper range). Unchanged flumazenil was recovered in all the urine samples ranging from 5.84% to 13.8% {mean (SD) 9.07 (2.96)} of the dose administered. The demethylated metabolite, desmethylflumazenil, was detected but was not measurable by the HPLC method because its analytical peak was too close to the solvent front of the chromatogram. The carboxylic acid metabolite of flumazenil was not resolved by the HPLC method described. The child demonstrating extensive hydroxylation of midazolam also excreted the largest amount of unchanged flumazenil in the urine (i.e. 13.8%), however his other pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic data were unremarkable.

DISCUSSION

The clinical pharmacokinetics of drugs in anaesthetic practice may be influenced by the mutual pharmacokinetic interactions of drug distribution, metabolism and excretion. In their studies in healthy volunteers, Breimer and co-workers observed that flumazenil and midazolam at repeated therapeutic doses did not show any accumulation or saturation kinetics (Breimer et al, 1991). Therefore, it is unlikely in this present clinical study, that pharmacokinetic interaction occurred when midazolam and flumazenil were administered together. The effect of caudal epidural anaesthesia on midazolam pharmacokinetics in children has not been studied but central blockade is reported to protect the child from the stress (Giaufre et al, 1985) and metabolic responses associated with surgery (Gouyet et al, 1991). Central blocks produce minimal haemodynamic changes in children and no changes at all in those under 8 years old (Giaufre, 1990) and therefore it is unlikely that caudal anaesthesia altered hepatic blood flow in this study to such an extent as to effect drug disposition (Giaufre et al, 1990a, Giaufre et al, 1990b).

In all the Chinese children in this study, clearance of midazolam from the plasma may be best described by a tri-exponential function, however other workers have described a bi-exponential decline in plasma midazolam levels (Tolia et al, 1991; Salonen et al, 1987; Payne et al, 1989). This may be explained by the 2 min sampling interval during the initial distribution phase and the measurement of plasma concentrations for nearly 300 min compared to shorter sampling times in other studies. The kinetics of intravenous midazolam were superimposed on a 'background' concentration of the oral midazolam premedication. This was considered valid if,

within the constraints of clinical practice, it is assumed that first order kinetics existed. The midazolam pharmacokinetic data in this study show a mean $T_{1/2}$ of 107 min (non-compartmental analysis), total body clearance of $15 \text{ ml kg}^{-1}\text{min}^{-1}$ and an apparent central volume of distribution of 0.3 l kg^{-1} . The smaller central volume of distribution and higher clearance in the subjects of this study should have resulted in a rapid initial and subsequent distribution half-lives, however the mean terminal elimination half-life data are intermediate when compared to other studies (Tolia et al, 1991; Clausen et al, 1988; Pentikainen et al, 1989). This may be explained by the different fat distribution in Chinese children, the differing anaesthetic techniques employed and the age related variation in metabolism of benzodiazepines which undergo oxidation as their main metabolic pathway of elimination (Greenblatt et al, 1984). The mean (SD) ratio of $k_{12} : k_{21}$ was 1.14 (0.8) suggesting a rapid distribution of the i.v. midazolam from the central plasma compartment to the shallow compartment, and the mean (SD) ratio of $k_{31} : k_{10}$ was 0.35 (0.18), suggesting a slow return from the deep fat and muscle compartments before elimination.

Flumazenil pharmacokinetic data were suitably interpreted by non-compartmental analysis because of the bolus and infusion administration regimen used in this study. The mean plasma levels of the drug after the infusion appear to decline bi-exponentially (Figure IV.2), although this was not observed in several patients whose drug levels declined almost mono-exponentially in a similar manner to that described in adults (Klotz et al, 1984; Klotz and Kanto, 1988). The present HPLC assay was not sufficiently sensitive to measure flumazenil in plasma in these patients 120 min after dose administration. The terminal elimination half-life of flumazenil may therefore be underestimated. Nevertheless the kinetic data were derived using

statistical moment analysis which takes into account the total dose administered. The V_{ss} in the children studied was about half that reported in adults, clearance values were similar and the flumazenil terminal half-life was 35 min in children compared to reported values of 60 -77 min in adults (Klotz et al, 1984; Breimer et al, 1991; Geller and Halpern, 1991). Both flumazenil and midazolam are water soluble drugs at low pH, but at physiological pH the imidazole ring forming part of the midazolam structure closes and lipid solubility is enhanced (Nilsson, 1991). The V_{ss} and V^{γ} for flumazenil was approximately half that of midazolam reflecting the latter drug's wider distribution and greater lipid solubility within the body. This is endorsed by the low $k_{31} : k_{10}$ ratio for midazolam and the absence of unchanged midazolam in the urine, implying that the slow release of the drug from the deep fat compartment enables complete metabolism by the liver before elimination (Greenblatt et al, 1984; Wills et al, 1990). The clearance of flumazenil from the plasma was more rapid compared to midazolam and unchanged flumazenil was recovered in the urine. Flumazenil rapidly attains equilibration in the central compartment, is only slightly bound to plasma proteins compared to midazolam and it is likely that more of the drug remains in the plasma compartment for a longer time because its lipid solubility is less than that of midazolam at physiological pH (Klotz et al, 1984). The small volume of distribution and high clearance of flumazenil resulted in a terminal half-life which was one third of the terminal half-life of midazolam in our children. Flumazenil levels in the plasma were minimal at 2 hr and not detectable by our method of analysis at 3 hr. The mean dose of flumazenil administered to the children in this study to attain awakening ($27 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$) was similar to that given by Klotz and colleagues (approx. $35 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$) to adults and the measured levels of flumazenil at awakening were higher than the steady

state levels used by Breimer and colleagues in adults to reverse a single i.v. dose of midazolam (approx. $0.25 - 0.75 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$) (Breimer et al, 1988; Klotz et al, 1984).

Two hours after oral midazolam administration all of the children arrived in the operating suite awake, co-operative and apparently anxiety free, but on specific questioning 30% of the children expressed some fear. Their mean (SD) midazolam concentration was $47 (15.8) \text{ ng ml}^{-1}$ (Figure IV.3) which is close to the lower range of concentrations at which sedative effects are seen in adult intensive care patients (Michalk et al, 1986; Westphal et al, 1987; Maitre et al, 1989; Reves, 1984) but well below the amnesic threshold reported by Persson and colleagues (Persson et al, 1988). Each benzodiazepine has its own plasma decay curve and pattern of threshold concentrations (Reves et al, 1984). The anxiolytic effect of midazolam occurs at lower serum concentrations than those required for sedation and therefore most of the children were calm on arrival in the operating suite (Nilsson, 1991). To achieve a hypnotic effect with midazolam in adults, a plasma concentration of $300-500 \text{ ng ml}^{-1}$ is required (Lauven et al, 1985; Persson et al, 1987). Children require a rapid, pleasant, smooth induction of anaesthesia but the variability in clinical response to a given dose of midazolam requires that either a large dose is administered, or that a narcotic (in this series alfentanil) is also given to ensure these favourable characteristics (Kissin et al, 1990). The relatively small dose of alfentanil administered during induction (Hiller and Saarnivaara, 1992), its short elimination half-life in children (Meistelman et al, 1987) and evidence that recovery is not prolonged after daycase anaesthesia (Millar and Jewkes, 1988) would suggest that alfentanil had little influence on the recovery characteristics recorded during this study. In all the children the induction was smooth, rapid and without incident and

the peak measured mean plasma midazolam level at 2 min was 1000 ng ml^{-1} which declined to levels less than 300 ng ml^{-1} at 20 min (Figure IV.1). At the time of antagonist administration, the children's mean plasma midazolam level (180 ng ml^{-1}) (Figure IV.2) was at the adult mid-range sedative level but was easily reversed with flumazenil 0.03 mg kg^{-1} . Half of the children awoke crying and refused to play with the post-box toy which may imply a mild inverse agonistic effect, reported by other workers in adults (Chiolero et al, 1986; Higgitt et al, 1986). Interestingly, these children also had the highest mean serum levels of flumazenil on awakening. These findings are in contrast to those described in the next chapter. Following flumazenil administration to children undergoing the same surgical procedure but using a spontaneously breathing anaesthetic technique employing halothane, only 20% of the children refused the toy or cried on awakening. The halothane supplemented children awoke more slowly but were given a lower mean dose of antagonist (0.024 mg kg^{-1}) than in this study. This is in accord with the findings of Geller and colleagues who demonstrated that flumazenil improved the quality of emergence from anaesthesia in patients given halothane anaesthesia without benzodiazepines (Geller et al 1987). Midazolam produces marked reduction of halothane MAC in humans at serum concentrations lower than that required to cause sleep (Inagaki et al, 1993) and to reduce the influence of the volatile agent on recovery and pharmacokinetic disposition, isoflurane was employed as the volatile agent in this study. The children who were happy and co-operative on awakening had higher serum midazolam levels compared to the children who were irritable, crying and refused to play with the post-box toy. Moreover, the children who were drowsy on awakening had a lower mean serum flumazenil level (Table IV.3). The sample size is too small for any statistical comparison, however the data are blind and lend credence to

pharmacokinetic-pharmacodynamic model of midazolam plasma concentration and effects which is being presently developed by other workers (Breimer et al, 1991).

Flumazenil is distributed into the brain within minutes of i.v. administration and attains brain concentrations which are higher than those in plasma but then is rapidly cleared from the brain and excreted (Geller and Halpern, 1991). The clinical effect of flumazenil is dependent on the dose of midazolam, dose of flumazenil, pharmacokinetics of both drugs and the timing of antagonist administration. Despite being fully awake, the children who were willing to perform the post-box toy demonstrated mild residual psychomotor impairment for the first 2 hr postoperatively. At 4 hr all of the children tested performed close to their best, practised, unmedicated preoperative attempt. The sensitivity of the assay did not permit measurement of plasma flumazenil levels at 3 hr but the mean midazolam levels of the children at that time were in the adult anxiolytic range. The resedation seen in 6 of the patients was presumably due to the residual midazolam hypnotic effects being relatively unopposed by flumazenil (Table IV.3). These children went back to sleep approximately 80 minutes after initial awakening but were easily roused, albeit crying and irritable and similar to the "normal" small child who is abruptly awoken. The awakening mean plasma level of midazolam in the resedated children was less than the awakening mean midazolam levels in the happy or sleepy children inferring that midazolam was redistributed more rapidly to the deep compartment in these children resulting in later sedation when the midazolam returned to the central compartment, and furthermore that resedation per se was not due to the rapid redistribution of flumazenil from the central compartment. Relative plasma concentrations of agonist and antagonist seem to determine the quality of emergence from anaesthesia. A mild

inverse agonistic effect of flumazenil has been reported in adults and may also occur in children with large plasma concentrations of flumazenil (Higgitt et al, 1986).

A smooth induction of anaesthesia with midazolam in children is achieved only with high plasma drug concentrations, with the resultant drawback of prolonged sedation during the early recovery period. Flumazenil antagonised the hypnotic effects of midazolam rapidly and effectively and the pharmacokinetic disposition of flumazenil in children was similar to that defined in adults (Klotz et al, 1984). The popularity of the new induction agent propofol infers that it may confer advantages over midazolam, however a more complete description of the pharmacokinetic disposition of propofol in children is required before comparing these two drugs as induction agents.

PHARMACOKINETICS OF PROPOFOL

Rapid recovery after general anaesthesia may be an advantage in paediatric patients, particularly those undergoing minor day care surgery. Propofol, the latest induction agent to be introduced into clinical practice seems to possess some advantage over other available agents in this respect (Mackenzie and Grant, 1985). The pharmacology of propofol has been recently reviewed by White (White, 1988) and there has been a rapid accumulation of clinical and pharmacological data but the description of the pharmacokinetics of propofol in children is incomplete (Valtonen et al, 1989; Saint-Maurice et al, 1989).

Age-related changes in body water, lean body mass, regional blood flow, renal and hepatic function (Friis-Hansen, 1971; Greenblatt et al, 1984, Björkman et al, 1987) affect drug distribution, metabolism and excretion (Cockshott, 1985; Kay et al, 1986; Servin et al, 1986). Furthermore, physiological changes associated with general anaesthesia and the racial characteristics of the study group may alter the disposition of anaesthetic drugs (Kumana et al, 1987). This study reports the pharmacokinetics of propofol in Chinese children.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Twelve Chinese children aged between 4 and 12 years were studied. All patients were ASA grade I and underwent circumcision for the treatment of phimosis. Children were specifically excluded from the study if there was a history of asthma or allergies, a previous adverse anaesthetic experience, halothane anaesthesia within the last month, hepatic, renal, respiratory, cardiac or haematological disease, developmental disability and if under two years of age.

Patients were premedicated with trimeprazine 3 mg kg⁻¹ (to a maximum of 90 mg) and atropine 0.03 mg kg⁻¹ by mouth two hours preoperatively. Two grams of EMLA emulsion cream (lignocaine 25 mg g⁻¹ and prilocaine 25 mg g⁻¹) was also applied to the dorsum of the left hand. In the operating suite, a 24-gauge cannula was inserted into a vein underlying the EMLA pretreated area. Procaine HCl 1 mg kg⁻¹ was administered 15 seconds prior to anaesthesia being induced with the aqueous emulsion formulation of propofol ('Diprivan') 2.5 mg kg⁻¹ injected over 30 seconds. Time zero was taken to be the incidence when the injection was completed. An 18-gauge cannula (for venous sampling) was then inserted into a vein in the contralateral antecubital fossa. Thereafter, anaesthesia was maintained with the patient spontaneously breathing nitrous oxide 67% in oxygen with halothane 1-3% delivered via a Mapleson F breathing system if under 25 kilograms and by a Mapleson A breathing system if more than 25 kilograms in body weight. The surgeon infiltrated each dorsal nerve at the root of the penis with 1.5 mls of 0.5% bupivacaine.

The sedative effectiveness of the premedication on arrival in the operating suite was assessed, categorised and recorded as one of the following: agitated or crying; aware and apparently anxiety free; drowsy; asleep but responsive to command (Jones et al, 1990). Induction was graded as good (absence of side effects), adequate (side effects present but not interfering with induction) and poor (side effects severe and protracted). Any evidence of excitatory phenomena on induction of anaesthesia was also recorded. During anaesthesia all patients were monitored with an E.C.G., non-invasive blood pressure cuff, pulse oximeter, capnograph and inspired oxygen concentration (Datex Cardiocap). Post operatively the patients' coma scale (Robertson et al, 1977) and a structured observation score (Krane et al, 1987) were assessed and noted at each of the blood sampling times detailed below. Also recorded in recovery were the awakening time (elapsed time from the discontinuation of general anaesthesia in the operating room to spontaneous eye-opening in recovery) and the time elapsed until the patient could identify himself.

Whole blood samples were collected for propofol estimation at the following times: 2, 5, 10, 15, 20, 30, 45, 60, 90, 120 and 180 minutes and 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 18 and 24 hours. Each sample was thoroughly mixed in tubes containing lithium-heparin (Sarstedt LH/5) and stored at +4°C until assayed. Propofol concentration in whole blood was determined by a modified liquid chromatographic method (Gin et al, 1990). Propofol in whole blood [(0.5 ml samples rather than the 1.0 ml samples used by Plummer (Plummer, 1987)] and internal standard thymol, buffered with 0.1 M sodium dihydrogen phosphate, were extracted into cyclohexane. The mobile phase consisted of 75% (v/v) acetonitrile in distilled water containing 1% (v/v) glacial acetic acid. A C_{18}

reversed phase column (Nova-Pak), linked to a C_{18} pre-column was used and the eluate was measured by a fluorometric detector with excitation and emission wavelengths set at 276 nm and 310 nm respectively (Chan and Gin, 1990). The calibration graphs were linear over the range 2 to 3000 ng ml⁻¹ with coefficients of variation ranging from 1.0 to 8.0%. The between batch coefficient of variance was 6.7% at 50 ng ml⁻¹ and 4.8% at 3000 ng ml⁻¹, while the limit of detection was approximately 2 ng ml⁻¹.

The blood concentration-time profiles of propofol were analysed by the BITRI computer programme (Gin et al, 1990; Chan et al, 1987) which utilises the method of residuals, whereby each curve is fitted with experimental data in terms of a bi-exponential or tri-exponential function. BITRI chooses the best fit such that the logarithms of squared deviation between exponential and computer values are minimised (Boxenbaum et al, 1974).

Distribution and elimination half-lives ($T_{1/2}^{\alpha}$, $T_{1/2}^{\beta}$, $T_{1/2}^{\gamma}$), apparent central volume of distribution (V), apparent volume of distribution at steady state (V^{ss}), apparent volume of distribution in the elimination phase (V^{γ}) and total body clearance (TBC) were calculated using standard formulae (Gibaldi and Perrier, 1982).

Association between age, clearance and elimination half-life was determined using linear regression with computer interactive statistical software (Minitab 1989).

RESULTS

On arrival in the operating suite, 2 of the children were awake and apparently anxiety free, 7 patients were drowsy with intermittent eye opening and the remaining 3 children were asleep, but awoke on command. A fixed dose of propofol of 2.5 mg kg^{-1} was given to all patients and resulted in induction being graded as free of side effects in 50% of patients and satisfactory in the remaining six. Five episodes of semi-purposeful movement occurred, combined with breath holding, tremor and rigidity in two patients, and 1 patient developed hiccup. The demographic, haemodynamic changes during induction and anaesthesia details for the 12 boys are presented in Table IV.5.

TABLE IV.5 Demographic, induction-haemodynamics and anaesthetic data in the 12 children. *Data are mean (SEM)[range].*

Age (yr)	7.9 (0.8)	[4-12]
Weight (kg)	25.8 (7.9)	[16-39]
Mean increase in heart rate from pre-induction values (beats min^{-1})	4.3 (6.4)	[-42 to +42]
Mean decrease in systolic blood pressure from pre-induction values (mm Hg)	-7.1 (4.4)	[-28 to +16]
Maximal end-tidal carbon dioxide recorded during anaesthesia (kPa)	6.8 (0.3)	[5.3-7.8]
Anaesthesia time (min)	28.8 (1.5)	[21-36]
Awakening time (min)	30.5 (4.0)	[11-61]

The maximum change in heart rate and systolic blood pressure from pre-induction values during the first five minutes of the induction period was computed. The mean maximum end tidal carbon dioxide value recorded during the surgical procedure was 50.9 mmHg, and the mean anaesthetic time for this group of children was 28.8 minutes. The mean awakening time was 30.5 minutes which occurred at a mean blood propofol concentration of 165 ng.ml⁻¹. In all cases the children could adequately identify themselves within two minutes of opening their eyes spontaneously. Coma scores post-induction time are shown in Table IV.6.

TABLE IV.6 Relationship between awakening and time after propofol administration. (*Values are the number of children*)

Time after induction (min)	45	60	90	120	240
Coma score <7 Asleep	10	1	1	0	0
Coma score 7 Lightly asleep, eyes open on command	1	8	6	1	0
Coma score 9 Fully awake, eyes open, conversing	0	3	5	11	12
Total number of children	12	12	12	12	12

The mean (SEM) duration of anaesthesia was 30.5(5.13) min. The mean blood propofol concentration-time profile for the children is shown in Figure IV.3.

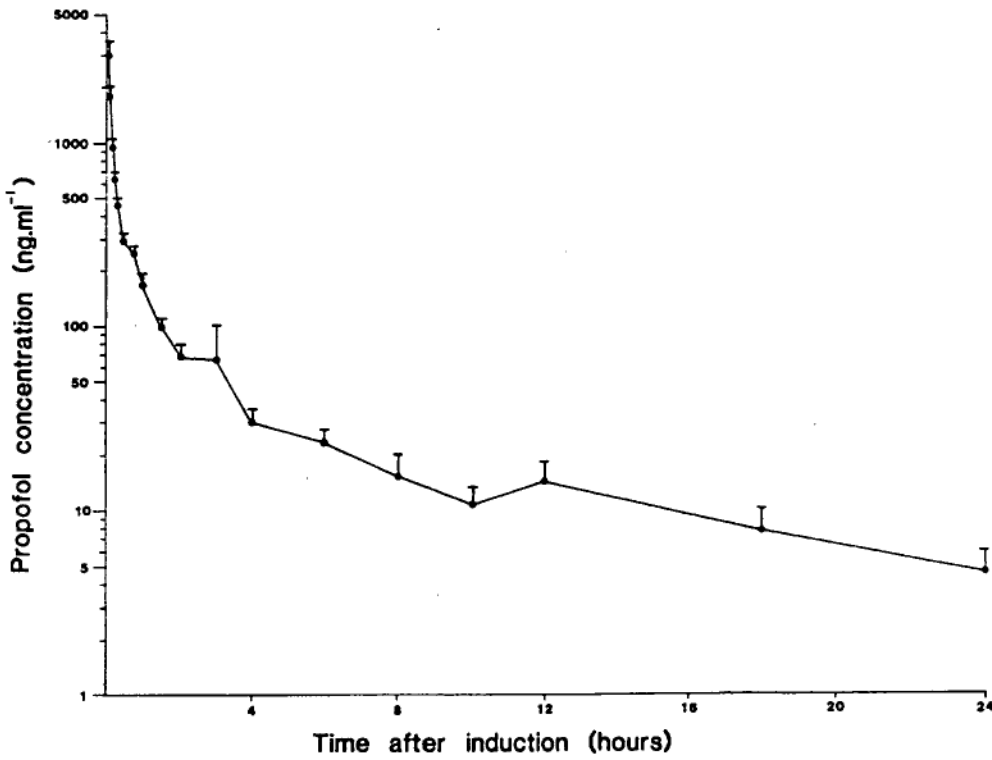


FIGURE IV.3: The mean (SEM) blood propofol concentration-time relationship in Chinese children.

Propofol concentrations declined in all patients but secondary peaks were present at 3 and 12 hours. Propofol concentrations were detectable in only 5 patients at 10 hours and only 2 patients at 24 hours. In all patients compartmental analysis of propofol concentrations revealed a three compartment model with elimination from a central compartment and the pharmacokinetic findings are summarised in Table IV.7.

TABLE IV.7 Propofol pharmacokinetic findings in the 12 children. V^{ss} =Volumes of distribution at steady state, V^i = equilibrium, V =volume of central compartment, Cl =total body clearance, $T_{1/2}^{\alpha}$, $T_{1/2}^{\beta}$, $T_{1/2}^{\gamma}$ =half-lives of the three phase and rate constants. Results are mean (SEM)[range].

V^{ss} (litre)	133.34 (25.56)	[20.25-345.40]
(litre Kg ⁻¹)	5.01 (2.66)	[1.68-10.16]
V^i (litre)	325.47 (61.22)	[44.63-570.11]
(litre Kg ⁻¹)	12.38 (1.98)	[2.23-23.50]
V (litre)	16.31 (3.77)	[2.45-41.94]
(litre Kg ⁻¹)	0.597 (0.10)	[0.08-1.23]
Cl (litre min ⁻¹)	1.11 (0.18)	[0.53-1.43]
(litre min ⁻¹ Kg ⁻¹)	40.35 (3.60)	[25.70-66.75]
$T_{1/2}^{\alpha}$ (min)	3.05 (0.43)	[1.01-6.44]
$T_{1/2}^{\beta}$ (min)	24.33 (5.13)	[5.26-74.99]
$T_{1/2}^{\gamma}$ (min)	209.22 (29.26)	[37.88-285.97]
k_{31} (h ⁻¹)	0.55 (0.22)	[0.18-2.97]
k_{10} (h ⁻¹)	6.40 (1.52)	[1.81-19.55]
k_{13} (h ⁻¹)	2.84 (0.72)	[0.64-9.47]
k_{12} (h ⁻¹)	5.79 (1.11)	[0.31-11.98]
k_{21} (h ⁻¹)	4.85 (0.82)	[1.31-9.96]
$k_{31} : k_{10}$	0.169 (0.074)	[0.02-0.89]
$k_{12} : k_{21}$	1.435 (0.224)	[0.03-2.58]

The mean ratio of $k_{12} : k_{21}$ was 1.435 ± 0.224 (mean \pm SEM), suggesting a rapid distribution of the intravenous propofol bolus to the shallow compartment, and the mean ratio of $k_{31} : k_{10}$ was 0.1692 ± 0.074 (mean \pm SEM) suggesting that the third

exponential phase was constrained by its slow return from the deep to the central compartment. Linear regression demonstrated a significant increase in the rate of elimination of propofol with increasing age ($p < 0.001$) (Figure IV.4), but there was no significant relationship between propofol clearance and age (Figure IV.5). No relationship was found between age and V^{ss} , V or V^Y with linear regression analysis. Anaesthesia and recovery proceeded smoothly in all patients and there were no complications.

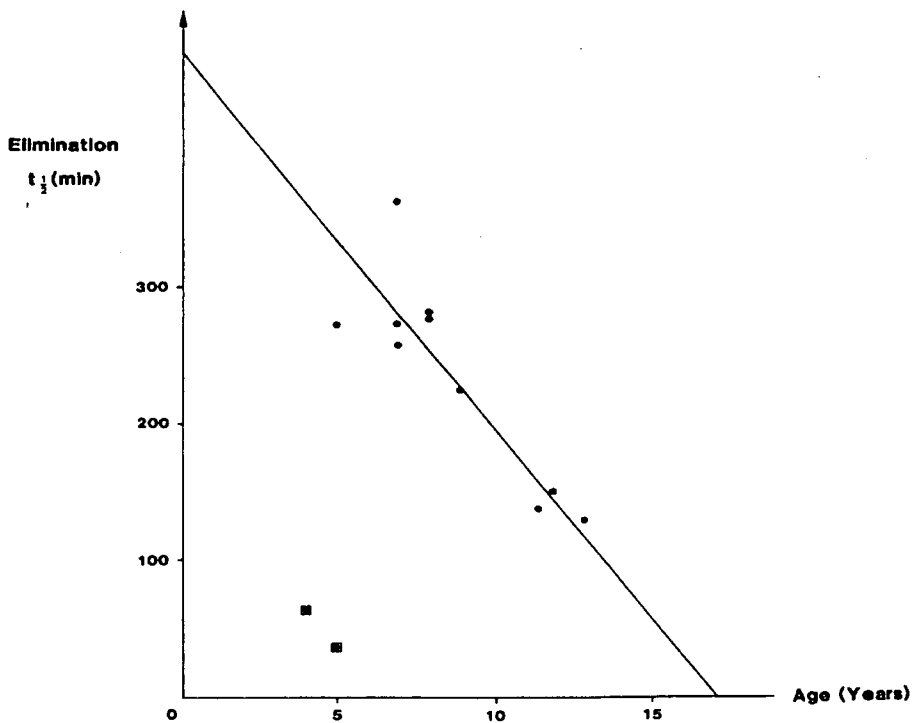


FIGURE IV.4: Relationship between age (years) and elimination half-life (minutes) for propofol. *The two outlying data points enclosed in the boxes were excluded from linear regression analysis ($r = 0.73$, $p < 0.001$).*

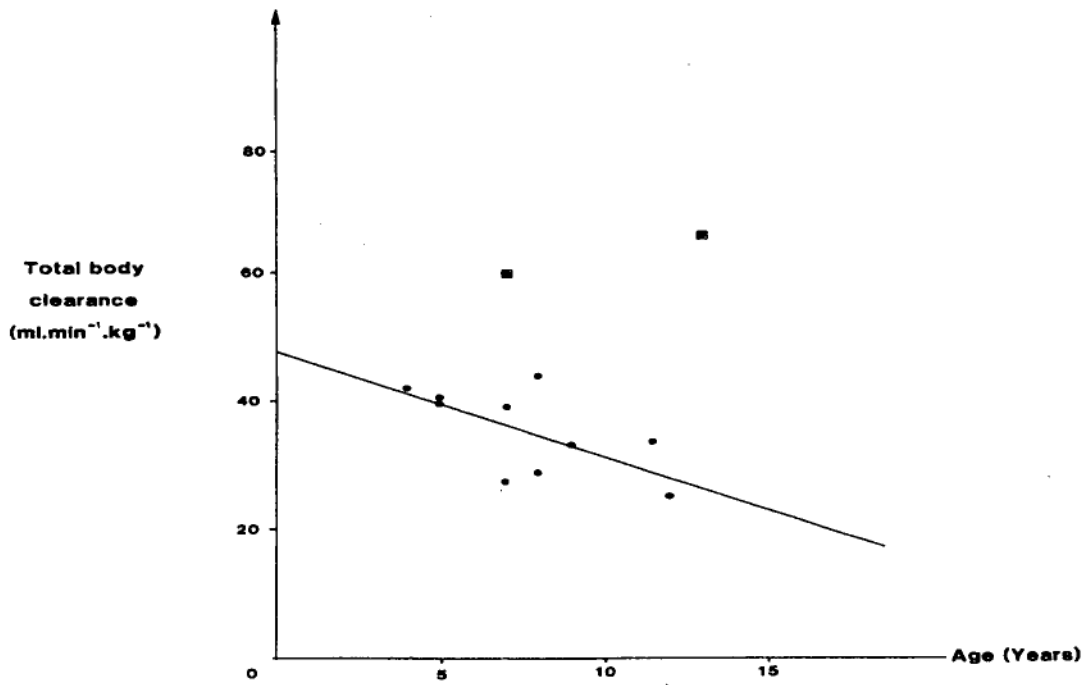


FIGURE IV.5: Relationship between age and clearance (ml kg⁻¹ min⁻¹) of propofol.

The two outlying data points enclosed in the boxes were excluded from linear regression analysis ($r = 0.41$, $p = 0.046$).

DISCUSSION

Pharmacokinetic studies in children are often restricted by the limited amount of blood that can be removed from the patient; a consequence of which is a lack of definition of the elimination phase. Recently new strategies such as naive pooled data and the non-linear mixed-effects modelling approach have been introduced in an attempt to overcome this problem (Fisher, 1994). However the pharmacokinetics of propofol are well described by the standard two-stage method and the 'best' estimates of the pharmacokinetic parameters estimated using the mixed-effects approach did not offer any increased accuracy over the simpler two staged approach (Kateria et al, 1994). In this study blood propofol concentrations in the 12 children have been determined, using small volume samples, up to 24 hours post induction. Peripheral venous samples were used because the risk to the paediatric patient of arterial cannulation is not justified for a minor surgical procedure, like circumcision. In all these children, the clearance of the drug from the blood can best be described by a tri-exponential function. The pharmacokinetic data show a mean $T_{1/2}^{\gamma}$ of 209 minutes and a mean total body clearance of 1.11 litre.min⁻¹. This large total body clearance combined with a relatively small mean volume of equilibrium (325.5 litres) for a highly lipophilic drug, results in a fast elimination of propofol from the blood in children. As in another study in young adults (Kirkpatrick et al, 1988), the mean volume of distribution at steady state was less than half of the mean equilibrium volume of distribution, suggesting that after distribution from the blood to the tissues, and metabolic clearance from the blood, elimination is constrained by a slow return of propofol to the blood from the deep compartment.

Data from this study are compared with the pharmacokinetic findings of Valtonen (Valtonen et al, 1989) and Saint-Maurice (Saint-Maurice et al, 1989) and are summarised in Table IV.8.

TABLE IV.8 Comparison of three pharmacokinetic studies of single dose propofol in children

	Valtonen (n = 8) Mean (SD)	Saint-Maurice (n = 8 + 2 for 4h) Mean (SEM)	Present study (n = 12) Mean (SEM)
$T_{1/2}^{\alpha}$ (min)	1.50 (1.56)	4.15 (0.78)	3.05 (0.43)
$T_{1/2}^{\beta}$ (min)	9.3 (3.78)	56.1 (6.30)	24.3 (5.13)
$T_{1/2}^{\gamma}$ (min)	214.6 (168.8)	735.0 (82.7)	209.22 (29.3)
V (litre kg ⁻¹)	0.530 (0.65)	0.722 (0.11)	0.597 (0.10)
V ^{ss} (litre kg ⁻¹)	2.16 (1.49)	10.90 (1.20)	5.01 (2.66)
Cl (ml min ⁻¹ kg ⁻¹)	32.0 (16.8)	30.6 (2.9)	40.4 (3.6)
Sampling times (min)	2, 4, 6, 10, 15, 30, 45, 60	2, 5, 10, 15, 20, 30, 40, 60, 90, 120	2, 5, 10, 15, 20, 30, 45, 60, 90, 120
(hr)	3, 6, 12, 24	3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 12, 24	3, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 18, 24
Surgery	Elective surgery	Minor visceral Minor orthopaedic	Circumcision
Other drugs administered	Atropine Flunitrazepam Lignocaine Fentanyl Pancuronium Suxamethonium	Fentanyl Vecuronium Halothane (n = 9) Enflurane (n = 1)	Atropine Trimeprazine Procaine HCl Halothane
	O ₂ : N ₂ O	O ₂ : N ₂ O	O ₂ : N ₂ O Caudal bupivacaine

The initial distribution half life determined in this study and that of Saint-Maurice are similar, perhaps reflecting the similar sampling times. The SD of Valtonen's data is equal to their mean $T_{1/2}^{\alpha}$. The elimination half life, central

compartment volume and plasma clearance values from Valtonen's study and this one are similar. The V^{ss} in Saint-Maurice's study is twice the value found in this study and five times that of Valtonen's data, and the elimination half-life determined by Saint-Maurice's group is three times as long. The differences between these studies may be attributable to the different anaesthetic techniques employed, different types of surgical procedure, the different sample collection times and the small populations examined.

The smaller lean body mass of Chinese children may decrease V^{ss} , leading to a shorter elimination half life. Similar results have been found with the pharmacokinetics of diazepam in Chinese adults (Kumana et al, 1987). The influence of ethnic origin on metabolism may also contribute to these differences, as it does for example, with the increased oxidative demethylation of pethidine in oriental subjects (Chan et al, 1990). The present study was performed with a prescribed anaesthetic technique, the same simple surgical procedure in all cases and 24 hour sampling in twelve patients.

Despite the small population sample, and the exclusion of two outlying points from the linear regression analysis, the decrease in elimination half life with increasing age was statistically significant (Figure IV.4). Each of the outlying points belong to a different patient and do not show any relation to the clinical or blood analysis data. The only constant feature in these two patients was that propofol could not be detected in their blood samples after the 10 hour post induction blood sample. The patient blood samples were randomly assayed, standardised pre and post batch,

and collected in the same manner by the same investigator throughout the study. It is likely in this group of young children that their metabolising capacity is rapidly developing, as reflected by the inverse relationship of elimination half life and age. Propofol is primarily rapidly metabolised to the inactive glucuronide conjugate and the corresponding quinol glucuronide. Not only is glucuronidation an age dependent enzyme process but both hepatic mass and hepatic blood flow increase towards adulthood (Stanski et al, 1982). Two children aged seven years took the longest to fully awaken and both were included in the elimination / age regression data ($T_{1/2}^{\gamma}$ 262 and 276 min). Unfortunately the awakening data are confounded by the long half-life of the premedicant trimeprazine; nevertheless, 91% of the children had awoken within 30 minutes of termination of anaesthesia and could be returned from the recovery area to the ward. With the anaesthetic technique used in this study, awakening occurred at approximately twice the $T_{1/2}^{\beta}$ with a mean blood concentration of 165 ng.ml^{-1} . There are no comparable data in the literature, but it can be noted that adults premedicated with hydroxyzine (Destibats et al, 1987) or promethazine (Hartung and Freye, 1988), had mean recovery times (22 and 16.3 minutes respectively) approximately double those of unpremedicated adults.

Both this study and that of Valtonen's group (Valtonen et al, 1989) demonstrate a tri-exponential relationship between blood concentrations and time. The data from two patients in Saint-Maurice's study (Saint-Maurice et al, 1989) were not available after four hours and their pharmacokinetic parameter estimates for these patients were based on a two-compartment open mamillary model. However it is possible to make a comparison of propofol half-lives between non-pregnant adults and

children (Briggs et al, 1985; Kay et al, 1985; Mather et al, 1987), though interpretation should be prudent in view of the varying anaesthetic techniques. The present study on children demonstrated a similar $T_{1/2}^{\alpha}$ to adults. Estimation of the initial distribution half life of propofol is liable to error because the first sample was drawn at two minutes post induction and the initial distribution half life value is 3.05 (0.43) minutes. However it was shown that when blood sampling at 2,4,6,8, and 10 minutes, post induction with propofol, in women undergoing laparoscopy was compared to sampling at 2,5,10 and 15 minutes in women undergoing caesarean section, there was no significant difference in their kinetics (Gin et al, 1990). The $T_{1/2}^{\beta}$ of the children in this study was approximately half and their elimination half-life three times shorter than those of the young adults in Kirkpatrick's study (Kirkpatrick et al, 1988). Only two patients in this study had detectable propofol levels at 24 hours. This may imply that these Chinese children had rapid metabolic elimination of the drug. The volume of the central compartment when normalised for body weight did not differ significantly from the young adults, but V^{ss} was approximately half. This may reflect the proportionately larger lipid content of the Caucasian adult compared to the Chinese child.

The rapid hepatic clearance of a highly protein bound drug like propofol (Mather et al, 1987) is primarily hepatic blood flow limited. Halothane reduces hepatic blood flow and may inhibit drug-metabolising liver enzymes (Björkman et al, 1987), but in Brigg's series the propofol levels in a group of patients whose anaesthesia included halothane were not significantly different from those in other groups (Briggs et al, 1985). However, unlike the children investigated in later studies,

the recorded haemodynamic changes on induction in this group were minimal. The effect of caudal epidural anaesthesia on propofol pharmacokinetics in children has not been studied but central blockade is reported to protect the child from the stress (Giaufre et al, 1985) and metabolic responses associated with surgery (Gouyet et al, 1991). Central blocks produce minimal haemodynamic changes in children and no changes at all in those under 8 years old (Giaufre, 1990) and therefore it is unlikely that caudal anaesthesia altered hepatic blood flow in this study to such an extent as to effect drug disposition (Giaufre et al, 1990a, Giaufre et al, 1990b).

This study has demonstrated that propofol pharmacokinetics in children are similar to adults and are consistent with a three compartment model with elimination from a central compartment. The elimination half-life of propofol in children is similar to that reported with a bolus intravenous administration of methohexitone in paediatric patients (Björkman et al, 1987), and approximately one third that reported with thiopentone (Sorbo et al, 1984). The rapid elimination of propofol and the minimal haemodynamic perturbation during induction qualify this agent as suitable for induction of anaesthesia in children.

The pharmacokinetic profile of midazolam described earlier in this chapter shows that although propofol clearance is twice as fast as midazolam, the elimination half-life of midazolam is half the duration of propofol and the terminal half-lives of the two drugs are very similar. Awakening times should only be compared if the patients were initially at the same depth of anaesthesia. This can be easily determined with inhalational agents by MAC equivalence but the analogous end point with

intravenous agents is not available. To some extent, the choice of a single surgical procedure and the very similar durations of anaesthesia may allow tentative conclusions to be considered. Halothane would also be expected to have some influence on the elimination of propofol and therefore care must be taken when comparing results, but awakening times were much faster following midazolam-induced anaesthesia antagonised with flumazenil, compared to awakening after propofol induced anaesthesia. In view of these results, a controlled comparison of midazolam and propofol would be valuable in assessing the place of midazolam as an induction agent in paediatric anaesthesia.

HAEMODYNAMIC CHANGES ON INDUCTION OF ANAESTHESIA WITH MIDAZOLAM, PROPOFOL OR THIOPENTONE

The previous sections discussed the pharmacokinetic suitability of midazolam and propofol as anaesthetic induction agents in children. A number of authors have compared the induction characteristics of propofol and thiopentone (Runcie et al, 1993, Mirakhur, 1988, Purcell-Jones et al, 1987) but there have been no comparative studies with midazolam in children. Induction characteristic dose-equivalence studies for propofol and thiopentone in children have been determined (McCollum et al, 1986) but again there have been no comparative studies with midazolam in children and therefore a recommended induction dosage regimen was chosen for comparison (Salonen et al, 1987). Induction of anaesthesia in children is often associated with rapid cardiovascular change, the degree and duration of which depends upon the agent used and the physiological status of the patient. The aim of this study was to compare the haemodynamic perturbation associated with induction of anaesthesia with either midazolam, propofol or thiopentone in children using the FinapresTM, a non-invasive continuous blood pressure monitor which was adapted to record continuous haemodynamic data for analysis. Exclusion criteria for the study were designed to provide subjects who would permit comparison of induction agent effect on haemodynamics, independent of patient pathology.

METHODS

Thirty ASA grade I Chinese children, aged 4-12 yr, undergoing circumcision for treatment of phimosis were investigated in this study. The study was approved by the Faculty of Medicine Ethics Committee (The University of Hong Kong) and written informed consent obtained from the parents. Children were excluded from the study according to the criteria detailed in *Chapter II*.

On the day of surgery, EMLA emulsion cream 2 g (lignocaine 25 mg g⁻¹ and prilocaine 25 mg g⁻¹) was applied to the cubital fossa of the non-dominant arm 2 hr before premedication with midazolam 0.5 mg kg⁻¹ (maximum dose 15 mg) and atropine 0.02 mg kg⁻¹ by mouth. Immediately following administration of the premedicant, a 23-gauge cannula was inserted into a vein underlying the EMLA-pretreated area. Routine monitoring devices included an electrocardiograph, intermittent non-invasive arterial pressure recorder and pulse oximeter (Datex, Cardiacap CM-104). A small size Finapres cuff was applied to the middle phalanx of the middle finger of the hand strictly according to the manufacturer's instructions, and the output from the Finapres 2300e (Ohmeda, Colorado) was interfaced with an AST Premium exec 386SX/25 computer. On arrival in the operating suite, the child was assessed as agitated or crying, aware and apparently anxiety free, drowsy, or asleep but responsive to command. Before induction, pulse rate, blood pressure and time data were simultaneously stored to disc in ASCII format every 10 sec for 3 min and then during and after induction for a further 10 min, using data acquisition software written for this system (BPM, 1991). The children were randomly allocated to receive either

propofol 2.5 mg kg^{-1} without lignocaine (Aun et al, 1992; Patel et al, 1988), midazolam 0.5 mg kg^{-1} (Salonen et al, 1987) or thiopentone 4.0 mg kg^{-1} (Sorbo et al, 1984) intravenously over 30 sec. Thereafter, anaesthesia was maintained with the patient breathing spontaneously 67% nitrous oxide and 1% halothane in oxygen via a Mapleson F ($< 25 \text{ kg}$) or a Mapleson A ($> 25 \text{ kg}$) breathing system. A caudal injection of 0.25% bupivacaine 0.5 ml kg^{-1} was given to all children, 6 minutes after intravenous induction agent administration.

The haemodynamic data were treated as ordinal scale data and analysed using the computer interactive statistical program CSS:Statistica™. A statistical significant ($p < 0.05$) difference between the three induction agent groups was determined using the Kruskal-Wallis statistic incorporating consideration of Bonferroni inequality. Patient's demographic data were analyzed by general ANOVA and statistical significant differences before and after induction in the same individuals was determined using the Wilcoxon signed-rank test.

RESULTS

There was no significant difference between the midazolam, propofol and thiopentone groups when comparing patient characteristics or mood immediately prior to induction (Table IV.9). One child presented to the operating suite asleep and the remainder were awake and apparently anxiety free.

TABLE IV.9 Patient characteristics and premedicant effect in the induction agent groups. *Data are mean (SD)[range].*

	Midazolam (n = 10)	Propofol (n = 10)	Thiopentone (n = 10)	<i>p</i> value	Statistical test
Age (yr)	7.2(2.5)[4-11]	7.4(2.0)[5-11]	7.4(2.3)[5-12]	0.97	general anova
Weight (kg)	21.4(4.5)[15-27]	23.9(5.3)[16-33]	23.7(7.4)[17-37]	0.57	
Anaesthetic duration (min)	35.5(6.0)[27-48]	29.9(4.6)[25-39]	32.5(7.6)[21-47]	0.15	general anova
Preoperative assessment					
asleep/drowsy	0	1	0		
awake	10	9	10		
crying	0	0	0		

Haemodynamic changes on induction were compared between the three induction agents using conventional intermittent non invasive blood pressure measurement every minute (Cardiocap) and Finapres blood pressure measurement every 10 seconds (Figure IV.6). Due to various technical recording and data manipulation errors, complete data were only available for 25 patients. Subsequent analysis excludes the 5 patients for whom data were not available.

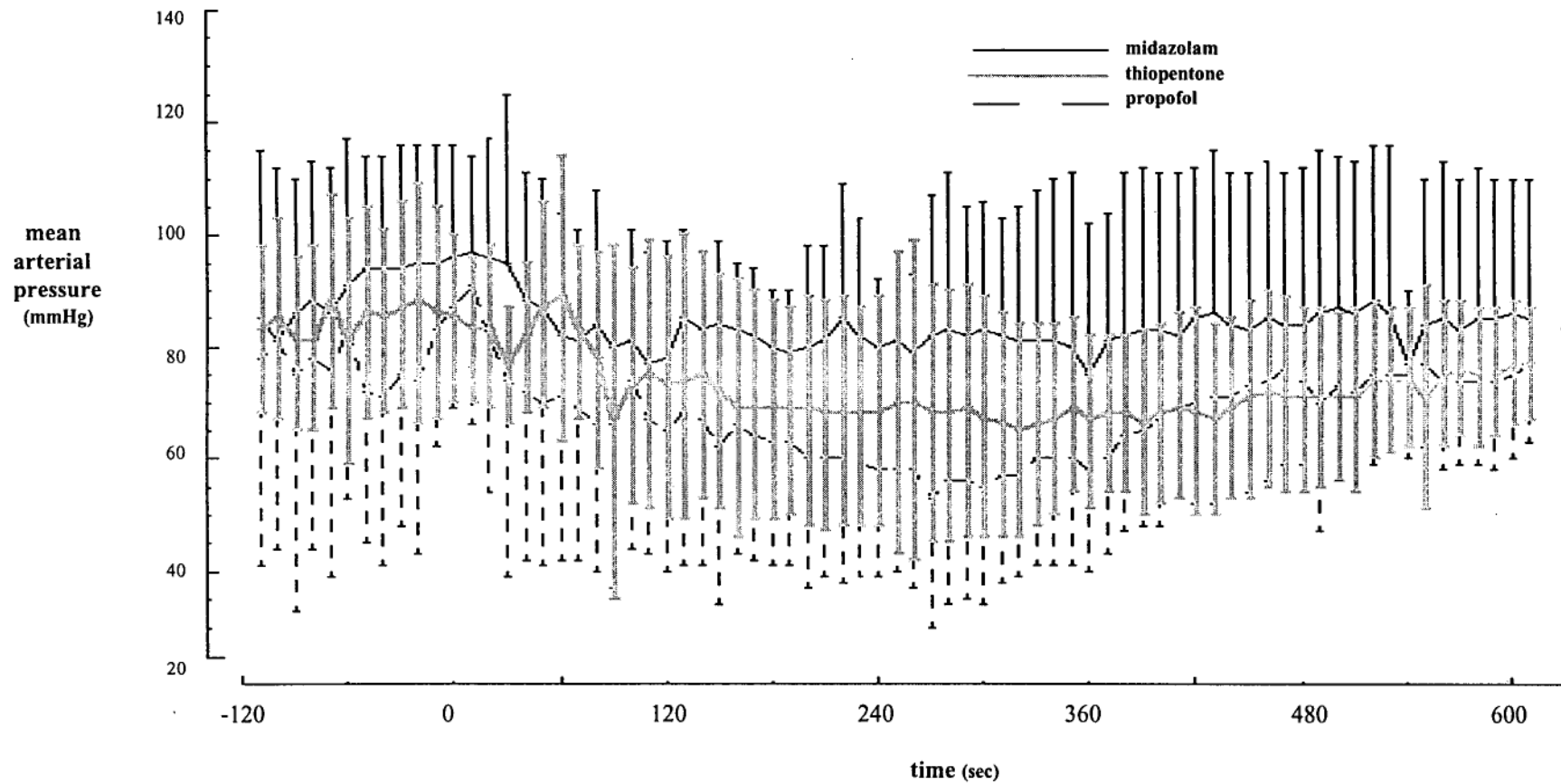


FIGURE IV.6 Mean arterial pressure data measured by Finapres during induction with midazolam, thiopentone and propofol.

Data are mean (SD). (n = 25).

Maximum change in blood pressure and heart rate from the preinduction baseline were analysed during the first minute and the subsequent 5 minutes after induction (Table IV.10).

TABLE IV.10 Haemodynamic data recorded by Finapres during the first and subsequent five minutes after induction. *Data are mean (SD)[range], blood pressure (mmHg), heart rate (beats min⁻¹).*

	Midazolam (n = 8)	Propofol (n = 9)	Thiopentone (n = 8)	p value	Statistical test
Mean maximum change in haemodynamic data recorded at first minute after induction					
systolic pressure	-12.6(27.9)[-58 to 17]	-25.7(23.8)[-59 to 20]	-0.3(25.6)[-26 to 47]	0.14	Kruskal-Wallis statistic
diastolic pressure	-15.0(19.6)[-47 to 8]	-21.9(20.6)[-54 to 12]	5.8(18.8)[-14 to 34]	0.07	
mean pressure	-16.0(21.4)[-53 to 10]	-28.4(17.4)[-53 to -10]	6.1(24.3)[-20 to 43]	0.03	
heart rate	-2.5(28.9)[-23 to 59]	-18.3(31.9)[-78 to 25]	15.3(22.1)[-24 to 49]	0.05	
Mean maximum change in haemodynamic data recorded at subsequent five minutes after induction					
systolic pressure	-24.7(32.4)[-58 to 49]	-50.2(21.8)[-91 to -11]	-27.1(44.0)[-71 to 70]	0.16	Kruskal-Wallis statistic
diastolic pressure	-19.9(23.3)[-47 to 30]	-37.2(27.6)[-67 to 24]	-14.3(30.7)[-40 to 59]	0.05	
mean pressure	-24.1(24.0)[-54 to 29]	-49.8(19.9)[-76 to -25]	-17.5(40.6)[-58 to 66]	0.04	
heart rate	-1.6(41.0)[-42 to 72]	-19.1(42.8)[-78 to 49]	6.1(33.9)[-45 to 49]	0.4	

The maximum decline in mean arterial pressure recorded with the Finapres showed a significant difference between the three induction agent groups at both 1 min and 5 min. Post-hoc analysis revealed a significant difference between the propofol and thiopentone groups at 1 minute ($p=0.01$), and between the propofol and midazolam groups at 5 minutes ($p=0.02$). Overall, thiopentone caused the least, propofol the greatest, fall in blood pressure, and midazolam was intermediate. The changing pattern in blood pressure and heart rate before and after induction is shown in figures IV.7, IV.8 and IV.9.

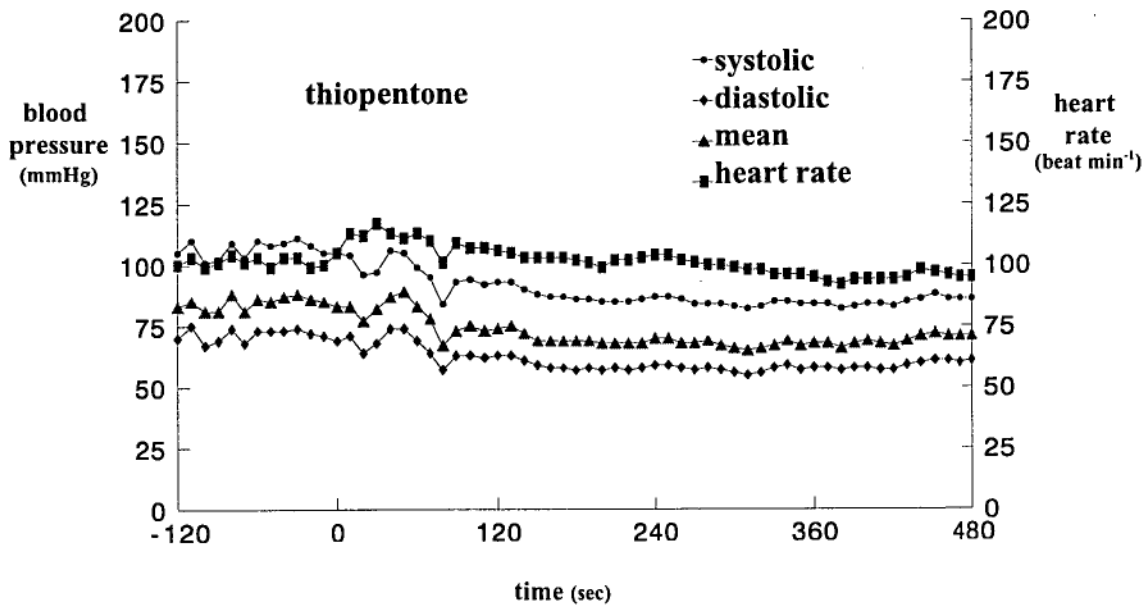


FIGURE IV.7 Blood pressure and heart rate data measured by Finapres during induction of anaesthesia with thiopentone

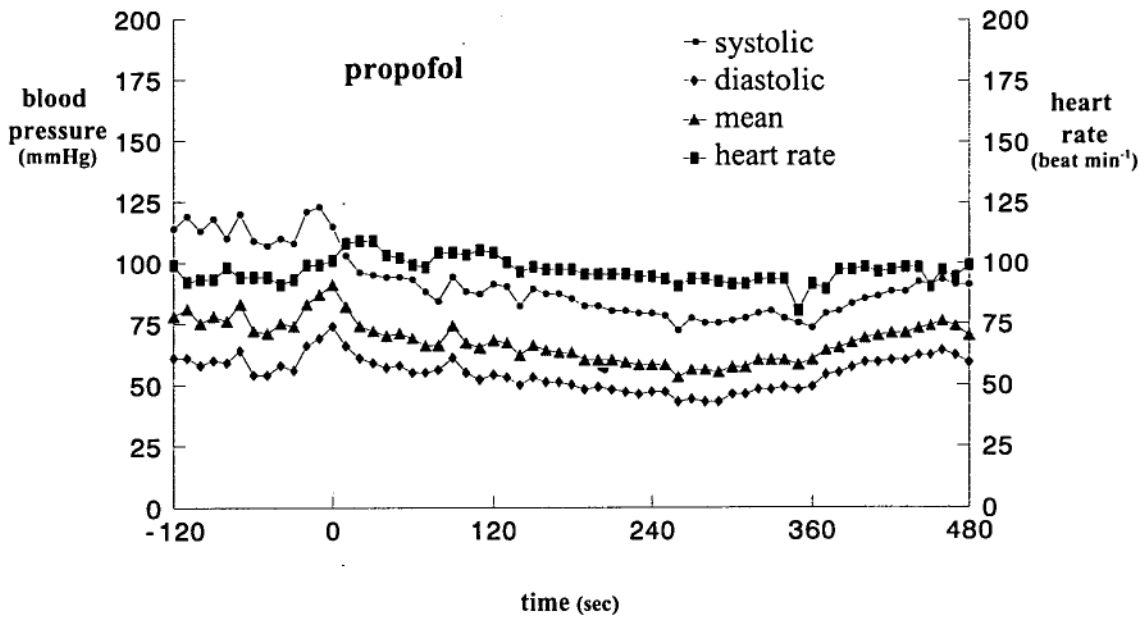


FIGURE IV.8 Blood pressure and heart rate data measured by Finapres during induction of anaesthesia with propofol

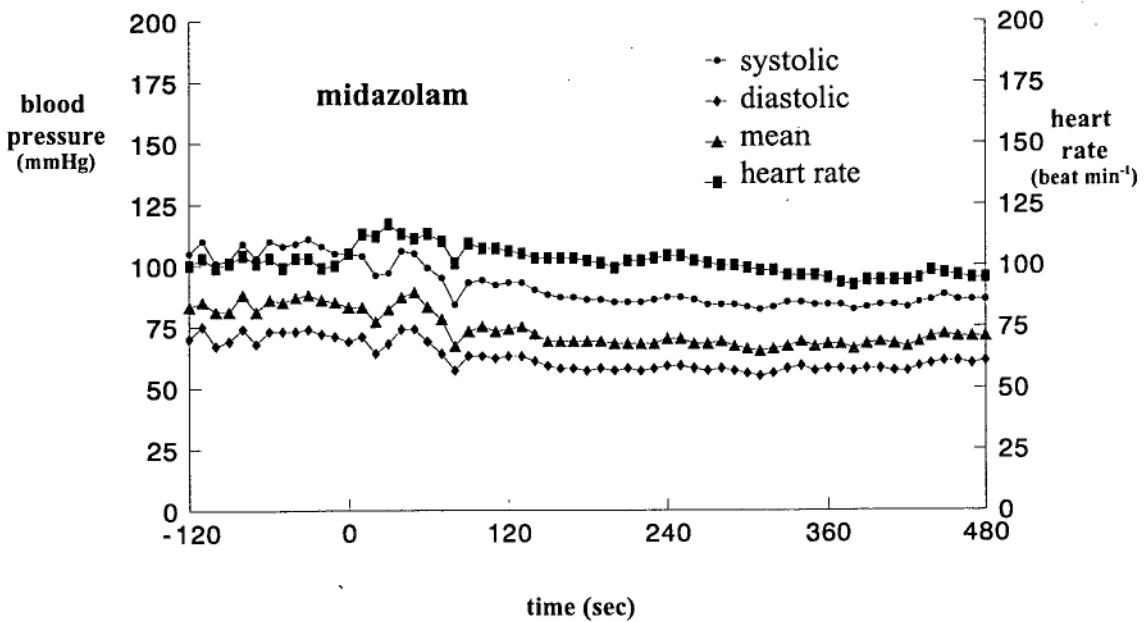


FIGURE IV.9 Blood pressure and heart rate data measured by Finapres during induction of anaesthesia with midazolam.

The Cardiocap data failed to demonstrate any significant difference between the groups during either time period (Table IV.11).

TABLE IV.11 Haemodynamic data recorded by Cardiocap during the first and subsequent five minutes after induction. *Data are mean (SD)[range], blood pressure (mmHg), heart rate (beats min⁻¹).*

	Midazolam (n = 8)	Propofol (n = 9)	Thiopentone (n = 8)	p value	Statistical test
--	----------------------	---------------------	------------------------	------------	---------------------

Mean maximum change in haemodynamic data recorded in the first minute after induction

systolic pressure	-5.0(8.8)[-19 to 6]	-9.9(20.4)[-37 to 27]	-7.0(13.1)[-26 to 15]	0.78	Kruskal-Wallis statistic
diastolic pressure	-5.5(16.4)[-30 to 18]	-8.7(15.2)[-31 to 20]	-9.4(13.8)[-37 to 6]	0.90	
mean pressure	-5.1(14.8)[-34 to 20]	-8.9(15.1)[-31 to 20]	-8.0(12.9)[-33 to 7]	0.77	
heart rate	8.1(17.6)[-11 to 41]	6.3(16.6)[-18 to 34]	15.5(15.9)[-7 to 35]	0.75	

Mean maximum change in haemodynamic data recorded in the subsequent five minutes after induction

systolic pressure	-23.4(17.3)[-40 to 15]	-23.3(21.4)[-42 to 27]	-27.8(25.6)[-56 to 26]	0.68	Kruskal-Wallis statistic
diastolic pressure	-16.5(22.8)[-37 to 19]	-16.9(16.3)[-37 to 20]	-19.5(19.3)[-40 to 25]	0.53	
mean pressure	-14.9(22.1)[-34 to 20]	-18.7(15.8)[-33 to 20]	-20.9(19.3)[-42 to 24]	0.70	
heart rate	13.0(28.3)[-33 to 45]	0.6(22.1)[-24 to 34]	4.3(27.2)[-28 to 37]	0.48	

When all Finapres and Cardiocap data were compared there was a significantly greater fall in mean arterial pressure recorded by the Finapres ($p=0.02$) (Table IV.12).

TABLE IV.12 Comparison of haemodynamic data recorded by Cardiocap and Finapres during the first and subsequent five minutes after induction, for all patients. *Data are mean (SD)[range], blood pressure (mmHg), heart rate (beats min⁻¹).*

FINAPRES (n = 25)	CARDIOCAP CM-104 (n = 25)	p value	Statistical test
----------------------	------------------------------	---------	---------------------

Mean maximum change in haemodynamic data recorded at first minute after induction

systolic pressure	-13.4(26.9)[-59 to 47]	-7.4(14.7)[-37 to 27]	0.43	Wilcoxon
diastolic pressure	-10.8(22.4)[-54 to 34]	-7.9(14.6)[-37 to 20]	0.62	
mean pressure	-13.4(24.9)[-53 to 43]	-7.4(13.8)[-33 to 20]	0.38	
heart rate	-2.5(30.4)[-78 to 59]	9.8(16.5)[-18 to 41]	0.06	

Mean maximum change in haemodynamic data recorded at subsequent five minutes after induction

systolic pressure	-34.7(34.2)[-91 to 70]	-24.8(20.9)[-56 to 27]	0.23	Wilcoxon
diastolic pressure	-24.3(28.1)[-67 to 59]	-17.6(18.7)[-40 to 25]	0.12	
mean pressure	-31.2(31.5)[-76 to 66]	-18.1(18.5)[-42 to 24]	0.02	
heart rate	-5.4(39.4)[-78 to 72]	5.7(25.3)[-33 to 45]	0.23	

There was poor correlation between Finapres and Cardiocap recorded blood pressures during each time period because of the difficulty in matching exact times of measurement between the two instruments and the limited number of Cardiocap measurements possible within the time period (correlation coefficients 0.07, 0.14, 0.16 and 0.17 for heart rate, systolic, diastolic and mean blood pressure), however there was less bias as more Cardiocap data became available for analysis during the 5 minute period (correlation coefficients being 0.24, 0.37, 0.37 and 0.46).

DISCUSSION

A combined comparison of the induction agents midazolam, thiopentone and propofol has not previously been reported in children. Propofol caused the greatest and most protracted fall in blood pressure after an induction dose of 2.5 mg kg^{-1} administered over 30 seconds into an antecubital vein. Thiopentone caused the least haemodynamic perturbation with the majority of changes being an increase in blood pressure. Midazolam administration was associated with a 15% decrease in mean arterial pressure (MAP) during the first minute after induction but the maximal decline in all pressures occurred at approximately 2 minutes when MAP was 20% below baseline values. Systolic, mean and diastolic blood pressures all declined by approximately 25% of baseline values following propofol administration, while pressures rose 0-5% following thiopentone induction. Propofol and thiopentone administration were associated with an average rise in heart rate of approximately 10% above baseline values, while the increase in pulse rate in midazolam group was 5%.

Continuous monitoring of arterial pressure is often desirable (Prys-Roberts, 1981, Kaplan, 1987) and is widely practised during anaesthesia, but arterial cannulation has associated morbidity (Slogoff et al, 1983, Runcie et al, 1989) and a noninvasive alternative is appropriate in ASA status I children undergoing minor surgical procedures. Although the Finapres demonstrates a wide variability in discrete values, it accurately reflects changes in pressure and was therefore able to display the haemodynamics in these children during the first minute following induction (Jones et

al, 1992b). The relatively slow sampling rate of the Cardiocap could not display these blood pressure changes during the early induction phase, and even though both instruments achieved more favourable correlation as more data points were acquired with time, this does not imply an improved ability to detect transient changes in blood pressure from a mean resting value. Blood pressure monitoring during the midazolam pharmacokinetic study discussed in the first section of this chapter was also performed with the Cardiocap. Recordings could only be made at 60 second intervals, and results showed an average **increase** of approximately 10% above baseline heart rate and blood pressure values. However, direct comparison between the two studies is inappropriate, as patients in the previous investigation were intubated.

There are few comparative data reported in the literature. The wide variation of ASA class, clinical condition, anaesthetic technique and interpatient response makes comparative interpretation of these results difficult. Early reports demonstrated no haemodynamic difference between midazolam and thiopentone, but data were collected at 5 minute intervals (Holloway et al, 1982). A comparative study of the haemodynamic sequelae associated with midazolam and propofol induction have not been reported but there are a number of controlled studies comparing thiopentone and propofol in children (Mirakhur, 1988, Purcell-Jones et al, 1987, Valtonen et al 1988). These studies showed the reduction of blood pressure to be less in the thiopentone groups compared to propofol but of less magnitude than the present study due to relatively infrequent data sampling. However, uncontrolled administration of propofol 1-3 mg kg⁻¹ over 10-30 seconds resulted in a decrease by more than 20% of baseline values in 48% of children who received halothane (Hannallah et al, 1991). Studies in

adults with ischaemic heart disease have demonstrated the relatively mild hypotensive effects of midazolam (Reves et al, 1979, Schulte-Sasse et al, 1982, Heikkila et al, 1984). Wilmot and colleagues found a 15% decrease in systolic blood pressure following propofol compared to a 0.7% decrease following a thiopentone induction in adults (Wilmot et al, 1993). Further factors confounding literature comparison are dose administered and rate of injection. Induction agents in this study were administered over 30 seconds. Unlike an increased dose of drug (Heikkila et al, 1984), fast rates of injection of propofol and midazolam do not appear to magnify the degree of hypotension associated with induction in ASA class I patients (Rolly et al, 1985, Alexander et al, 1992, Gillies and Lees, 1989).

Significant cardiovascular depression in terms of a decrease in arterial pressure is well documented in the elderly (McCollum et al, 1986, Fahy et al, 1985, Mirakhur et al, 1987) and more recently in children (Mirakhur, 1988, Hannallah, 1991) following propofol administration. A direct cardiac depressant effect, peripheral vasodilation and a reduction in ventricular preload have been proposed as likely causes of this hypotension (Coetzee et al, 1989). Decreasing diastolic pulmonary arterial pressure has been proposed as evidence of venous pooling after midazolam administration in adults, but a direct cardiac depressant effect has not been demonstrated in man in clinical doses (Massaut et al, 1983, Yip et al, 1992). Caudal anaesthesia in this series of children caused minimal haemodynamic disturbance and effectively abolished the usual increase in blood pressure associated with the commencement of surgery (Mirakhur, 1988).

This study demonstrates the clinically acceptable haemodynamic changes associated with midazolam induction in healthy children. Extrapolation of these data to other patient sub-groups is inappropriate. Care should be exercised if hypovolaemia is suspected because an exaggerated hypotensive response would be expected due to the venous pooling effect. Propofol administration in the presence of hypovolaemia or an otherwise compromised myocardium may result in severe, prolonged hypotension (Foëx et al,1991). On the other hand, a thiopentone induction undertaken in the manner described in this study should not be chosen, if an increased rate-pressure product is to be avoided.

When administered according to the described protocol, thiopentone caused the least average haemodynamic change on induction and propofol administration was associated with the greatest fall in blood pressure for the longest duration, in patients who were ASA I and undergoing a minor surgical procedure. The cardiovascular depressant effect of midazolam was intermediate between thiopentone and propofol.

CHAPTER V

RECOVERY FROM ANAESTHESIA

Antagonism of the hypnotic effect of midazolam	130
Recovery following induction of anaesthesia with midazolam, propofol or thiopentone	146

ANTAGONISM OF THE HYPNOTIC EFFECT OF MIDAZOLAM

The previous chapters show that midazolam may have a place as an induction agent. However a wide variability in response and difficulty in predicting an induction end-point results in large doses of midazolam (0.6 mg kg^{-1}) being required for reliable induction of anaesthesia in children (Salonen et al, 1987; Gamble et al, 1981). There is therefore a consequent risk of prolonged post operative sedation. These risks can be reduced if the sedative effects of midazolam could be reliably antagonised and therefore provide greater safety in the recovery room and a more efficient usage of the operating suite.

The clinical efficacy and safety of flumazenil in rapidly antagonising the sedative effects of benzodiazepines administered to facilitate gastroscopy (Sanders et al, 1989), bronchoscopy (Geller et al, 1986) and other minor investigative procedures has been well established. The dose of flumazenil required for reversal of midazolam-induced anaesthesia, the incidence of resedation or incomplete respiratory depression reversal in children has not previously been reported.

Following midazolam induction of anaesthesia, this study assessed the efficacy of sedation antagonism in a flumazenil-treated and a placebo group, by comparing psychomotor performance with a modified post box toy test (Craig et al, 1982), using each patient as his own control.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Forty ASA grade I Chinese children, aged 3-12 yr., undergoing circumcision for the treatment of phimosis were studied. Children were excluded from the study if there was a history of asthma or allergies, previous adverse anaesthetic experience, halothane anaesthesia within the previous month, hepatic, renal, respiratory, cardiac or haematological disease, developmental disability and age less than 3 yr.

The day before surgery each child was familiarised with a post-box toy in the same manner as described in *chapter III*. The completion time of his best performance on seven attempts was recorded. On the day of surgery, the patients were premedicated with midazolam 0.5 mg kg^{-1} (maximum dose 15 mg) and atropine 0.02 mg kg^{-1} by mouth 2 hr before operation. EMLA emulsion cream 2 g (lignocaine 25 mg g^{-1} and prilocaine 25 mg g^{-1}) was applied to the dorsum of a hand. On arrival in the operating suite the children were assessed and recorded as agitated or crying, aware and apparently anxiety free, drowsy, or asleep but responsive to command (Jones et al, 1990).

In the operating suite, a 24-gauge cannula was inserted into a vein underlying the EMLA-pretreated area. Anaesthesia was induced with midazolam 0.5 mg kg^{-1} injected over 30 sec. Thereafter, anaesthesia was maintained with the patient breathing spontaneously 67% nitrous oxide and 1-3% halothane in oxygen via a Mapleson F ($< 25 \text{ kg}$) or a Mapleson A ($> 25 \text{ kg}$) breathing system. A caudal injection of bupivacaine 0.25%, 0.5 ml kg^{-1} was given to all patients, 6 minutes after induction agent

administration. Routine monitoring devices included an electrocardiograph, non-invasive arterial pressure recorder, pulse oximeter, capnograph and inspired oxygen concentration (Datex, Cardiocap).

The duration of anaesthesia and the cardio-respiratory data during surgery were recorded. Three minutes after the child was transferred to the recovery room he was given 0.1 ml kg^{-1} of a blinded solution intravenously, followed by $0.05 \text{ ml kg}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ until either the patient awoke or the 10 ml ampoule was exhausted. The blinded solution contained either flumazenil 1.0 mg in 10 mls or saline as placebo. The volume of blinded solution injected, the eye-opening time (time from the commencement of blinded solution injection to spontaneous eye opening) and the time until the patient could identify himself were recorded. During the administration of the blinded solution, the systolic blood pressure, heart rate, respiratory rate, modified Steward coma scale (Robertson et al, 1977) and a structured observation score (Krane et al, 1987) were assessed and recorded each minute for 10 min and then each 5 minutes until the patient awoke. Any untoward effects occurring during the recovery period were noted. The child's behaviour and speed of reversal were considered together by an independent observer in the recovery room and were graded as excellent, good, moderate or poor, determined by the eye opening time of $<6 \text{ min}$, $>6 < 12 \text{ min}$, $>12 < 18 \text{ min}$ and $>18 \text{ min}$ respectively.

Immediately the patient became cooperative he was encouraged to complete the post-box toy in the quickest possible time. The child was offered the post-box toy at 5, 10, 30, and 60 min and 2, 4, and 18 hr after operation and his fastest completion time

on a single attempt recorded by the same investigator with all children at all assessment times. The child's best, preoperative, unmedicated performance was divided by the child's postmedication toy-completion time at each assessment point, and the data expressed as the post box toy completion ratio (PBTR). The induction injection site was inspected at 18 hr post operatively for evidence of erythema, pain or venous thrombosis.

Statistical significance ($p < 0.05$) was determined for patient characteristic data, duration of anaesthesia, awakening times, toy completion ratios and cardiorespiratory data comparison between the groups by analysis of variance. Premedication score and the efficacy of sedation antagonism was determined by Chi-square analysis (with Yates' correction) using the computer interactive statistical program MINITAB™. Correlation between awakening data and flumazenil administration was determined by calculating Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (adjusted for ties) and multivariate analysis of variance was determined using MRSP™ (Bacon-Shone and Laurent, 1989).

RESULTS

The premedication scores for the two groups were significantly different ($p<0.02$)(Table V.1). On arrival in the operating suite, three of the children in the flumazenil group were crying, whereas two of the placebo group were asleep but awoke on command. The mean duration of anaesthesia was 36(14) min in the flumazenil group and 33(11) min in the placebo group ($p=0.4$)(Table V.1).

TABLE V.1 A comparison of the demograhic data, duration of anaesthesia and premedication score in the Flumazenil and placebo groups. *Data are mean (SD)[range].*

	Flumazenil group (n = 20)	Placebo group (n = 20)	<i>p</i> value
Age (yr)	7.2 [3.5-11.5]	6.9 [3.0-12.5]	0.9
Weight (kg)	21.2 (5.1) [13.5-30.5]	22.7 (6.9) [15.5-44.0]	0.5
Premedication score			
Asleep	0	2	
Drowsy	0	0	
Awake	17	18	
Crying	3	0	0.02
Duration anaesthesia (min)	36 (14) [17-80]	33 (11) [19-69]	0.4

The average dose of flumazenil administered to the children was 0.024 (0.019) mg kg⁻¹. Fifty five percent of the children receiving flumazenil were given 10 mls of the blinded solution prior to awakening, compared to 100% of the placebo group. The time to eye opening and identification was significantly faster in the flumazenil treated patients ($p<0.001$). The effectiveness of anaesthesia reversal was qualitatively assessed by a second anaesthetist as superior in all but one of the flumazenil group (Figure V.1).

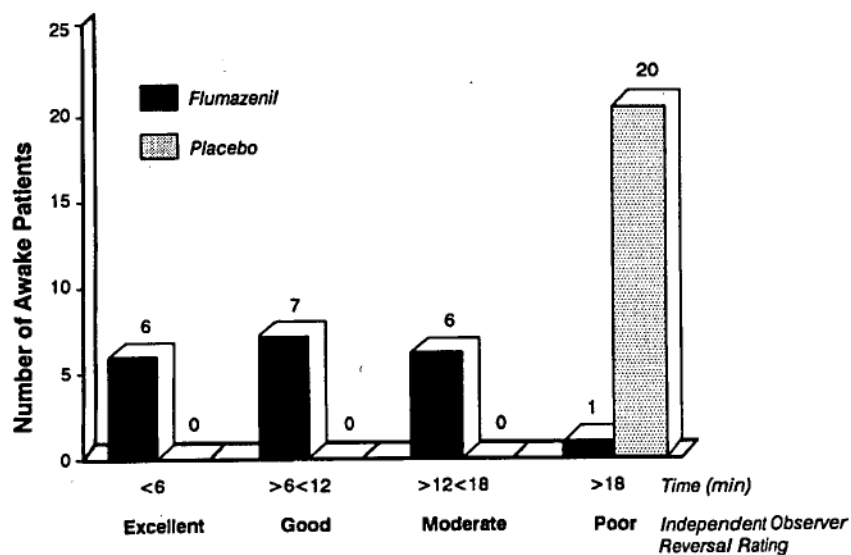


FIGURE V.1 Effectiveness of the reversal solution assessed by the independent observer and by eye-opening time. (Spearman's correlation $p<0.001$).

The coma scores at 5 and 10 min were significantly higher in the flumazenil group ($p<0.008$ and $p<0.001$) (Table V.2).

TABLE V.2 Awakening data after reversal. *Data are mean (SD) [range].*

	Flumazenil group (n = 20)	Placebo group (n = 20)	<i>p</i> value
Volume of antagonist solution administered (ml)	8.6 (1.7) [5.0-10.0]	10 (10)	<0.001
Time to eye-opening (min)	10.4 (6.6) [2-32]	37.9 (15.5) [21-76]	<0.001
Time to self-identification (min)	17.1 (12) [6-52]	45.1 (15.5) [22-77]	<0.001
Assessment of antagonism			
Excellent	6	0	
Good	7	0	
Moderate	6	0	
Poor	1	20	<0.001
Modified Steward Coma Scale at:			
5 min	4.5 (2.0) [2-9]	1.7 (0.9) [0-4]	<0.001
10 min	7.4 (2.1) [3-9]	1.9 (0.9) [0-4]	<0.001

There was a significant increase in the coma score associated with the lightening of consciousness within the flumazenil group between the 5 and 10 minute assessments but not in the placebo group ($p<0.001$). There was a significant increase in systolic arterial pressure on awakening during flumazenil administration compared to those patients receiving placebo ($p<0.02$) but other measured cardio-respiratory parameters were similar (Table V.3).

TABLE V.3 Changes in cardiorespiratory data during administration of the blinded solution. *Data are mean (SD)[range].*

	Flumazenil group (n = 20)	Placebo group (n = 20)	p value
Ventilation frequency (b.p.m.)	-1.2 (2.4) [-4 to 2]	-0.3 (1.6) [-4 to 2]	0.1
Systolic arterial pressure (mmHg)	11.5 (12.7) [-11 to 35]	2.6 (10.8) [-11 to 31]	0.02
Heart rate (beat min ⁻¹)	5.8 (29.4) [-44 to 66]	-5.4 (16.4) [-45 to 22]	0.14

The postoperative assessment of the children's mood on awakening is shown in Table V.4 and a comparison of post box toy completion ratios between the flumazenil and placebo groups is shown in Table V.5.

TABLE V.4 Postoperative assessment of the mood of the children on awakening.

Postoperative assessment	Flumazenil group (n = 20)	Placebo group (n= 20)
Toy refusal on awakening	3	5
Crying on awakening	4	2
Resedation	4	5
Dissociated	1	0
Antagonism assessed as satisfactory	17	0

TABLE V.5 Post-box toy completion assessment. *Data are mean (SD)[range].*

	Assessable children at prescribed times (n)	Flumazenil group (n = 20)	Assessable children at prescribed times (n)	Placebo group (n = 20)	<i>p</i> value
Fastest completion before operation (sec)		20 (10) [8-52]		19 (8) [9-43]	0.9
Completion ratio after operation					
10 min	12	0.34(0.08) [0.20-0.48]	0		
30 min	16	0.48(0.16) [0.17-0.74]	2	0.08(0.06) [0.04-0.13]	<0.001
60 min	16	0.49(0.15) [0.29-0.72]	12	0.18(0.10) [0.07-0.41]	<0.001
2 hr	18	0.57(0.20) [0.25-1.08]	15	0.47(0.17) [0.18-0.72]	0.14
4 hr	20	0.69(0.32) [0.31-1.80]	20	0.65(0.19) [0.30-1.07]	0.95
18 hr	20	0.84(0.25) [0.43-1.42]	20	0.84(0.26) [0.56-1.61]	0.8

There was no difference between the two groups in the preoperative fastest completion time. However, during the first 2 hr postoperation, the flumazenil group performed significantly better than the placebo group. ($p < 0.02$)(Figure V.2).

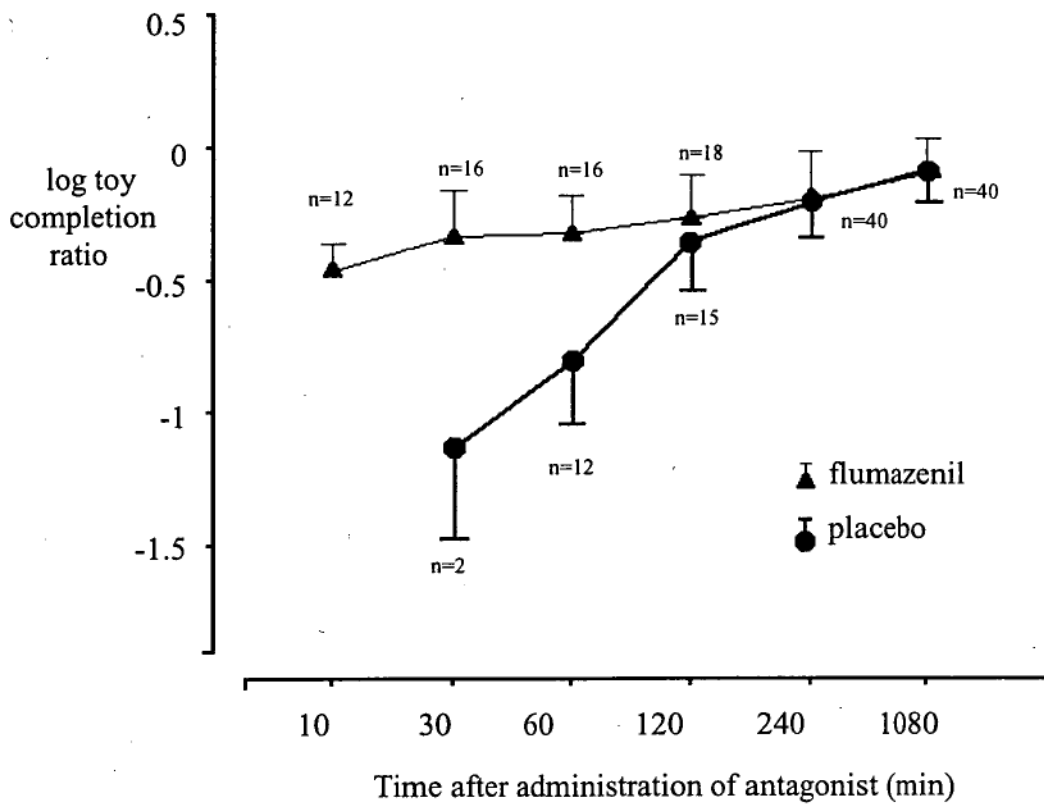


FIGURE V.2 Log toy completion ratio at different times after administration of reversal solution. Data are mean (SD)[range], n = number of patients assessable at the prescribed times.

Postoperatively one child in the flumazenil group appeared dissociated for a period of approximately 3 min. An equal number of children in both groups went back to sleep after eye-opening but all of the flumazenil treated children were easily awakened. None of the children who received flumazenil became resedated. There

were no significant differences between the placebo and flumazenil groups in relation to refusal to play with the toy or crying on awakening (Table V.4). There was a significant correlation between the volume of flumazenil administered and the eye opening time ($p<0.001$) and the self-identification time ($p<0.02$). Multivariate analysis revealed no relationships of statistical significance.

DISCUSSION

This study demonstrates that flumazenil effectively reverses the residual hypnotic effect of midazolam induction of anaesthesia in children. All aspects of arousal assessment during the first 2 hr postoperatively demonstrated flumazenil administration to be significantly superior to the placebo. The mean dose of flumazenil required to reverse the effects of midazolam was 0.024 mg kg^{-1} . The dose of flumazenil reported to awaken adult patients in whom midazolam was used to induce anaesthesia is approximately 0.5 mg (Wolff, 1988; Nilsson et al, 1988; Alon et al, 1987). In our children the dose administered ranged from 0.5 to 1.0 mg, and 55% of the flumazenil group were given a maximum dose of 1.0 mg before awakening. Despite the relatively large dose per kilogram of midazolam (0.5 mg kg^{-1}) used to induce our children, reversal was achieved with a dose of flumazenil similar to that given to adults. However there was only a weakly significant relationship between body weight and the flumazenil dose required for awakening ($p < 0.04$) and this showed no correlation with age.

The onset and mode of action of midazolam depends in part on the relationship between the benzodiazepine receptor and the gamma-amino-butyric acid (GABA) receptor complex (Haefely, 1988). It has been demonstrated that the rate of chloride uptake by cultured neurons following midazolam administration is dose dependent (Thompson et al, 1988). The onset of anaesthesia with midazolam is faster in children (Salonen, 1987) and this may be due to a greater free midazolam concentration around the benzodiazepine receptor or a stronger affinity of midazolam

for the benzodiazepine receptor. Flumazenil reversal of benzodiazepine effects depends on the number of receptors occupied at the time of flumazenil administration (Haefely, 1988). It is postulated that the hypnotic effects of benzodiazepines occur with 60-90% receptor occupancy and anxiolytic properties at 20-30% receptor occupancy (Amrein and Hetzel, 1990). High doses of midazolam are therefore necessary for hypnosis but low doses of flumazenil convert the adult from the hypnotic to the sedated state (Amrein and Hetzel, 1990). It is surprising that there was no demonstrable relationship between the midazolam induction and flumazenil reversal dose. The variable response to midazolam and dose requirement of flumazenil in relation to body weight in children requires further investigation. Children may differ from adults in their pharmacokinetic profile, plasma protein binding, receptor occupancy rate, chloride channel opening frequency and the amount of GABA present at the GABA receptor (Thompson et al, 1988).

This study shows that mean eye-opening and identification time was approximately three times as fast in the flumazenil group compared to the placebo group. One child in the flumazenil group did not awaken for 30 min after flumazenil administration and behaved in a manner identical to the placebo group. This may have been caused by an undue sensitivity to midazolam, resistance to flumazenil, unusual pharmacokinetic profile of these drugs or the unlikely event of there not being any active drug in that particular ampoule of blinded solution. The remaining flumazenil treated children awoke within 18 min of administration while the placebo treated group demonstrated a wide variation in awakening times from 20 to 77 min. The modified Steward coma scales at 5 and 10 minutes were statistically and clinically

superior in the flumazenil treated children. These children demonstrated a rapid regaining of consciousness and airway control compared to the placebo group who required vigilant observation for a long period of time.

The observer assessed both the rate and quality of reversal (Table V.2). One child awoke after flumazenil administration and remained uncommunicative in a dissociated state for about three minutes. The child then began to cry and appeared normal. All other flumazenil treated children awoke faster and were more co-operative, more rapidly calmed if distressed and if they went back to sleep they were easily aroused. Resedation after midazolam reversal in our children did not present the same problem as in adults (Whitwam, 1990). This may be because they were given a single intravenous dose of midazolam, their lack of concomitant disease and the absence of synergistic drugs (excluding halothane) for supplementation of anaesthesia. Interestingly, Geller and colleagues found that although flumazenil did not actually reverse halothane anaesthesia, it had a definite effect on hastening recovery as well as making it more pleasant (Geller et al, 1988). The reversal of the midazolam-induced deep hypnosis by careful titration of flumazenil appears to leave the anxiolytic properties of midazolam intact (Amrein et al, 1988). The placebo group in this study had a higher toy participation refusal rate, were irritable on awakening and were still somnolent after eye-opening.

Vomiting, tremor and involuntary movements reported in adults after flumazenil administration (Haefely, 1988), were not seen in any of our children. The low incidence of vomiting may be explained by the brief duration of anaesthesia for

peripheral surgery in children, the midazolam premedication and a caudal epidural being preferred to narcotics for the provision of analgesia.

The post-box toy completion time ratio provided a sensitive psychomotor assessment, a measure of the speed of recovery from anaesthetic agents and took into account the practice effect associated with performing a complex motor task. During the first 2 hr postoperatively the flumazenil group performed significantly faster when compared to the placebo treated children. This is in accord with previous clinical experience in adults (Raeder et al, 1988; Geller et al, 1988) and the pharmacokinetic profiles of midazolam and flumazenil (Hunkeler, 1988; Gerecke, 1983). At 4 hr the mean toy completion ratios were identical between the two patient groups and their performance was less than twice their preoperative **fastest** completion time. Despite the large dose of midazolam given at premedication and induction of anaesthesia, both the flumazenil treated and placebo treated children demonstrated a degree of recovery from anaesthesia which would allow them to be safely discharged home four hours postoperatively.

The mean change in cardio-respiratory parameters from pre-reversal administration were small and similar in both groups of patients. The only statistically significant finding was a minimal increase in systolic blood pressure after flumazenil administration corresponding to the normal awakening, a similar finding to Geller and colleagues in adults (Geller et al, 1986).

Flumazenil provides safe reversal of the residual sedative effects of midazolam induced hypnosis in children. Of particular benefit is the rapid return of consciousness

and upper airway control during early recovery and the preservation of the anxiolytic properties of midazolam anaesthesia. To provide a more complete understanding of the place of midazolam in clinical paediatric anaesthetic practice, a comparison of recovery following anaesthesia induced with other commonly used agents is necessary.

RECOVERY FOLLOWING INDUCTION OF ANAESTHESIA WITH MIDAZOLAM, PROPOFOL OR THIOPENTONE

Paediatric surgery is being increasingly performed on a day-stay basis because of rising hospital costs. Ambulatory care also reduces displacement anxiety in the child and decreases exposure to nosocomial infection (Kapur, 1992). Circumcision is a suitable procedure for ambulatory surgery because the procedure is of short operative duration, has a low incidence of complications and postoperative pain relief can be easily and reliably provided (Hannallah and Epstein, 1991). Circumcision patients form a suitable subgroup for assessment of induction agents because the procedure permits delivery of a standard anaesthetic technique of relatively constant duration. Furthermore, the control of intra and postoperative pain with caudal anaesthesia allows assessment of anaesthetic recovery without pain confounding the data (Runcie et al, 1993).

Recovery after anaesthesia is multidimensional (Zuurmond et al, 1989). Of particular interest in ambulatory care is the immediate recovery of protective reflexes following surgery and a later return to "street fitness" prior to discharge from the ward. A variety of tests of psychomotor performance, cognition and memory have been used to assess recovery in adults (Cashman and Power, 1989) but patient compliance makes assessment of psychomotor recovery difficult in children. The aim of this study was to evaluate two tests of recovery and describe any relative advantages following induction with either thiopentone, propofol or midazolam, in children undergoing circumcision.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Thirty ASA grade I Chinese children, aged 4-12 yr, undergoing circumcision for treatment of phimosis were investigated. The study was approved by the Faculty of Medicine Ethics Committee (The University of Hong Kong) and written informed consent obtained from the parents. Children were excluded from the study if they failed to conform with the criteria as described in *Chapter II*. The day prior to surgery, each child was familiarised with a post-box toy (PBT) and the completion time of his best seven attempts recorded (Jones et al, 1991). The children also underwent a Wechsler intelligence scale (WISC-R) coding performance assessment, matched for race (The Hong Kong Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children, 1981). Long term memory recall was assessed by a simplified Williams test (Williams, 1968), whereby the children were shown a simple picture of a school scene for 30 s and asked to name and remember five depicted objects. The following morning before premedicant administration, the child was asked to recall the objects from the picture shown to him the previous evening and scored according to his degree of success.

On the day of surgery, EMLA emulsion cream 2 g (lignocaine 25 mg g⁻¹ and prilocaine 25 mg g⁻¹) was applied to the cubital fossa of the non-dominant arm 2 hr before premedication with midazolam 0.5 mg kg⁻¹ (maximum dose 15 mg) and atropine 0.02 mg kg⁻¹ by mouth. On administration of the premedicant, a 23-gauge cannula was inserted into a vein underlying the EMLA-pretreated area. Prior to transfer to the operating suite the child was again shown another simple picture of a family scene for 30 sec and asked to name and remember five depicted objects. On

arrival in the operating suite, all children were assessed by the same attendant anaesthetist as agitated or crying, aware and apparently anxiety free, drowsy, or asleep but responsive to command (Jones et al, 1990). The awake children were then asked if they felt frightened and if so, to specify the cause of their anxiety. Routine monitoring devices included an electrocardiograph, intermittent non-invasive arterial pressure recorder and pulse oximeter (Datex, Cardiocap CM-104). The children were randomly allocated to receive either propofol 2.5 mg kg^{-1} (Aun et al 1992; Patel et al 1988), midazolam 0.5 mg kg^{-1} (Salonen et al, 1987) or thiopentone 4.0 mg kg^{-1} (Sorbo et al, 1984) intravenously over 30 sec. Thereafter, anaesthesia was maintained with the patient breathing spontaneously 67% nitrous oxide and 1% halothane in oxygen via a Mapleson F ($< 25 \text{ kg}$) or a Mapleson A ($> 25 \text{ kg}$) breathing system. A caudal injection of 0.25% bupivacaine 0.5 ml kg^{-1} was administered to all children.

The duration of anaesthesia and cardio-respiratory data during surgery and recovery were recorded. The time to spontaneous eye opening and self-identification were recorded by an anaesthetist blinded to the agent used for induction of anaesthesia. The child's co-operation, mood and sedative level were recorded were recorded on awakening using a structured observation score (Krane et al, 1987) and the modified Steward coma score (Robertson et al, 1977), and a 1 ml blood sample taken. The blood samples were collected into tubes containing lithium-heparin (Sarstedt LH/5) for measurement of the plasma or whole blood concentration of the induction agent. As soon as the child became co-operative he was encouraged to complete the post-box toy in the quickest possible time and the WISC-R coding performance was scored. At each of the blood collection times the child was offered

the post-box toy and his fastest completion time at a single attempt recorded. The child was also asked to complete the WISC-R coding test within 2 min and scored according to his performance. The raw WISC-R data was then scaled to produce score equivalents adjusted for the child's age. The child's best, preoperative, unmedicated performance was divided by the child's postmedication performance at each assessment point for both the PBT and WISC-R, and the data expressed as the post box toy completion ratio (PBTR) and WISC-R scale ratio. The child was offered the toy and coding test at 60, 120, 180 and 240 min after awakening and a 1 ml blood sample was taken immediately after completion of each psychomotor assessment. Four hours after awakening the child was asked to recall 5 objects from the picture shown to him immediately preoperatively and scored according to his degree of success. Each assessment of psychomotor function was performed by the same investigator on all occasions in all patients.

Whole blood propofol concentrations, midazolam and thiopentone plasma concentrations were determined employing an HPLC technique as described in *Chapter II*.

Statistical significance ($p < 0.05$) was determined for the three induction agent groups for demographic and awakening data by analysis of variance using the Newman-Keuls test for post-hoc comparisons. Pearson product moment correlation was used to determine any relationship between postoperative awakening and duration of anaesthesia, PBT and WISC-R ratios, and, drug concentration and psychomotor test. A significant difference between the coma scores at each postoperative

assessment for the three induction agents was determined using the Kruskal-Wallis statistic and chi-square analysis (with Yates' correction) was used to analyse the mood data. Memory recall before and after induction in the same individuals was analysed using Wilcoxon signed-rank test. Data computation was performed using the computer interactive statistical program CSS:Statistica™ (Complete Statistical System, 1991).

RESULTS

There was no significant difference between the midazolam, propofol, and thiopentone groups when comparing patient characteristics, anaesthetic duration and psychomotor assessment by WISC-R or post box toy (PBT) on the evening before surgery or after midazolam premedication (Table V.6). One child presented to the operating suite asleep and the remainder were awake and apparently anxiety free. No child required any post operative analgesic supplementation.

TABLE V.6 Demographic data, anaesthetic duration and preinduction assessment in the three induction agent groups. *Data are mean (SD)[range].*

	Midazolam (n = 10)	Propofol (n = 10)	Thiopentone (n = 10)	<i>p</i> value	Statistical test
Age (yr)	7.2(2.5)[4-11]	7.4(2.0)[5-11]	7.4(2.3)[5-12]	0.97	general anova
Weight (kg)	21.4(4.5)[15-27]	23.9(5.3)[16-33]	23.7(7.4)[17-37]	0.57	
Anaesthetic duration (min)	35.5(6.0)[27-48]	29.9(4.6)[25-39]	32.5(7.6)[21-47]	0.15	general anova
Preoperative state					
asleep/drowsy	0	1	0		
awake	10	9	10		
crying	0	0	0		

Testing the association between anaesthetic duration and the time to self-identification in all patients revealed a correlation coefficient of 0.17 (Table V.7).

TABLE V.7 Postoperative awakening and psychomotor performance data in the three induction agent groups. *Data are mean (SD)[range]. * r value = correlation coefficient for the relationship between postoperative self-identification time and the duration of anaesthesia for each induction agent.*

	Midazolam (n = 10)	Propofol (n = 10)	Thiopentone (n = 10)	p value	Statistical test
Eye opening time (min)	31.8(10.8)[21-57]	21.9(7.6)[10-33]	25.2(7.0)[16-36]	0.05	General anova
Identification time (min)	36.3(10.0)[24-57]	22.9(8.1)[10-34]	27.0(7.7)[16-40]	0.01	General anova Newman-Keuls
Postoperative PBTR					
Awake	0.2(0.2)[0.1-0.6]	0.4(0.2)[0.1-0.8]	0.4(0.2)[0.2-1.0]	0.03	General anova
60	0.5(0.3)[0.1-0.9]	0.8(0.2)[0.3-1.2]	0.6(0.2)[0.3-0.8]	0.18	Newman-Keuls
120	0.8(0.2)[0.5-1.1]	0.7(0.2)[0.5-1.2]	0.8(0.2)[0.6-1.2]	0.34	
180	0.9(0.2)[0.4-1.1]	0.9(0.2)[0.6-1.3]	0.8(0.1)[0.6-0.9]	0.83	
240	0.9(0.2)[0.7-1.4]	0.9(0.2)[0.6-1.1]	0.9(0.2)[0.6-1.2]	0.63	
Postoperative WISC-R scale R					
Awake	0.1(0.1)[0.1-0.2]	0.5(0.4)[0.1-1.0]	0.4(0.2)[0.1-0.7]	0.02	General anova
60	0.6(0.3)[0.1-1.0]	0.7(0.4)[0.1-1.0]	0.6(0.4)[0.1-1.0]	0.44	Newman-Keuls
120	0.9(0.2)[0.3-1.0]	0.9(0.4)[0.1-1.2]	1.0(0.2)[0.7-1.5]	0.60	
180	1.0(0.1)[0.8-1.1]	1.0(0.2)[0.7-1.3]	1.1(0.2)[0.9-1.6]	0.50	
240	1.0(0.1)[0.8-1.1]	1.1(0.1)[0.9-1.3]	1.1(0.2)[0.9-1.6]	0.32	
*r value	0.36	0.22	0.56		Pearson product moment correlation

The midazolam group of children took a significantly longer time to identify themselves compared to both the propofol ($p=0.005$) and thiopentone groups

($p=0.02$), however there was no difference between the groups in the time to eye opening ($p=0.05$). The propofol group were able to identify themselves 13 minutes faster than the midazolam group. On awakening, both PBT and WISC-R ratios were significantly lower in the midazolam group compared to propofol ($p=0.03$ and 0.01) and thiopentone groups ($p=0.01$ and 0.02). However, after 1 hr, there was no statistical difference between the groups with either method of assessment. Most children had recovered to 80% of their best recorded performance four hours after awakening, irrespective of the induction agent administered (Figure V.3).

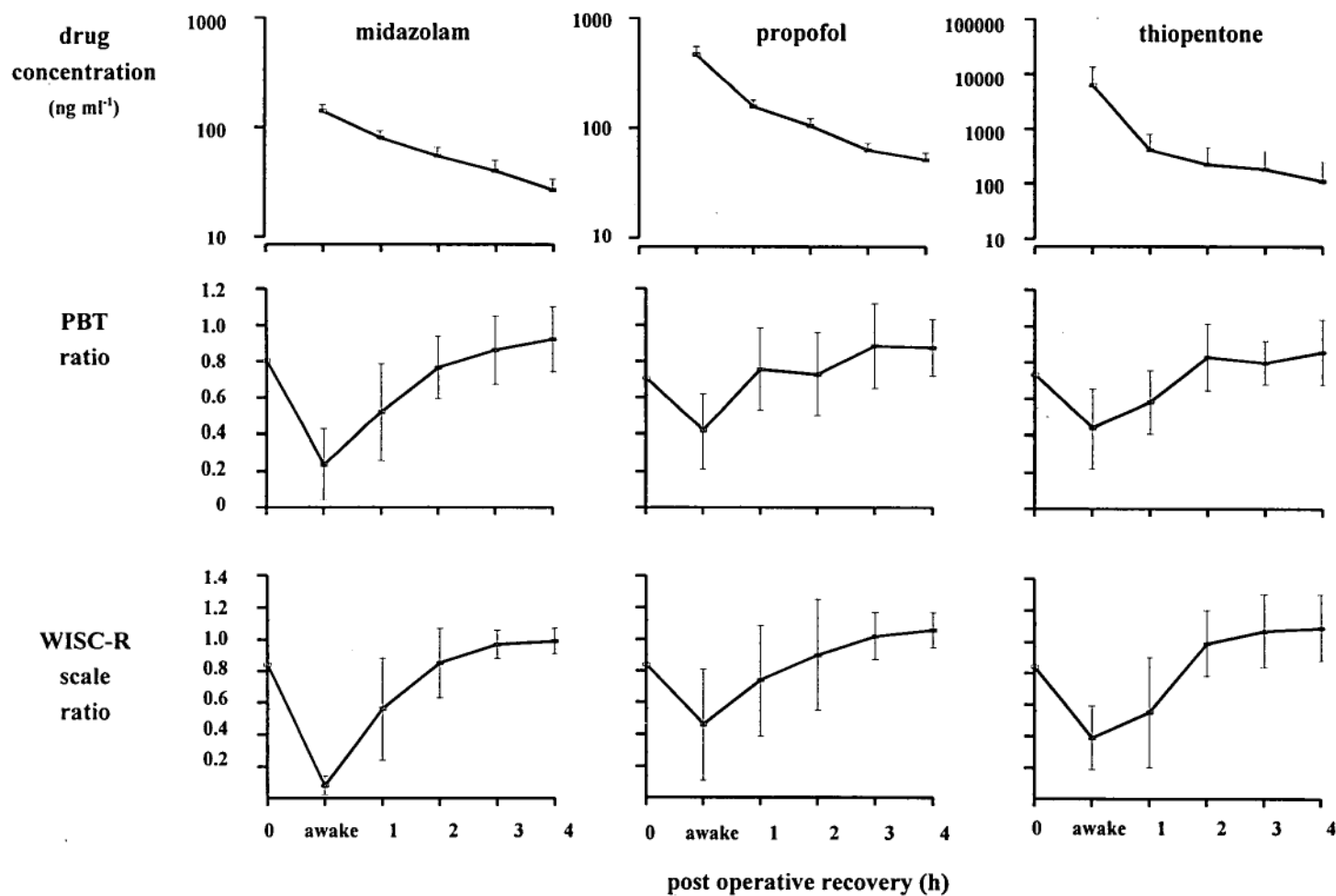


FIGURE V.3 Postoperative drug concentrations of the induction agents midazolam, thiopentone and propofol and hourly assessments of psychomotor recovery using the PBT and WISC-R ratios. (n=10).

The Pearson product moment correlation testing the association between PBT and WISC-R ratios for all psychometric data was 0.7 (Figure V.4).

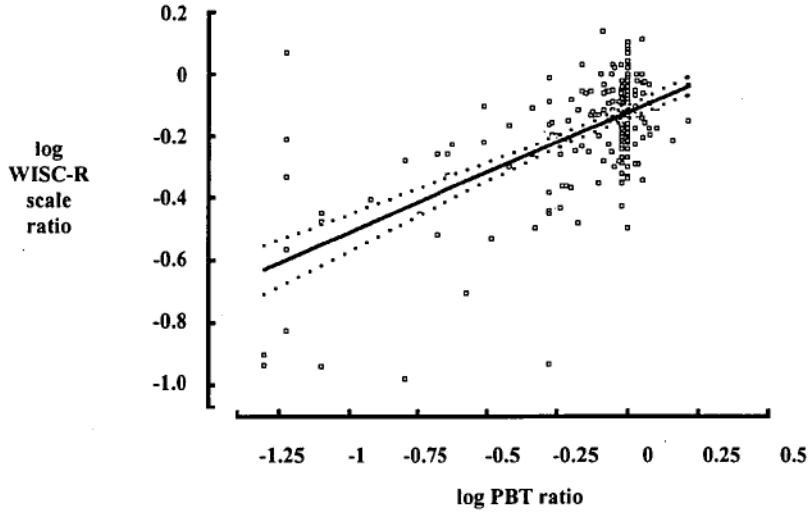


FIGURE V.4 Pearson product moment correlation testing the association between PBT and WISC-R ratios for all psychometric data. (n=30).

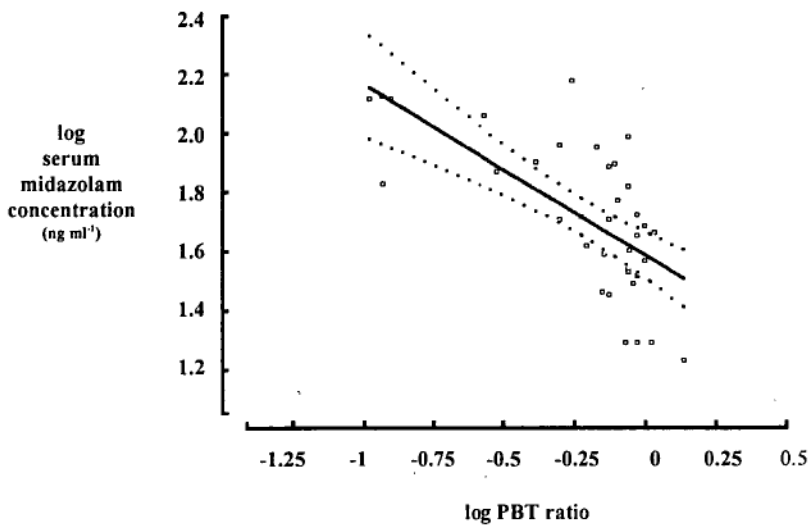


FIGURE V.5 Pearson product moment correlation testing the association between serum midazolam concentration and PBT ratio. (n=10).

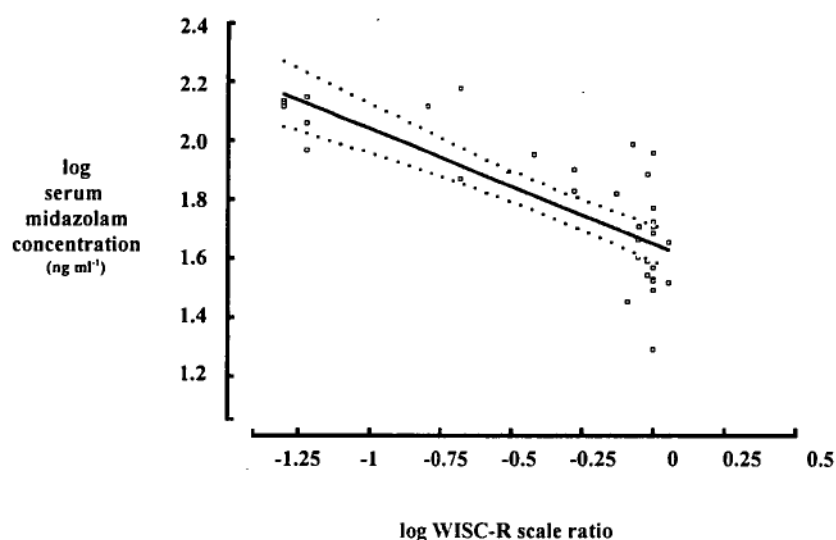


FIGURE V.6 Pearson product moment correlation testing the association between serum midazolam concentration and WISC-R ratio. (n=10).

The correlation coefficients between PBT and serum midazolam (Figure V.5), thiopentone and blood propofol concentrations were 0.67, 0.38 and 0.37 respectively. WISC-R testing and serum drug concentrations showed correlation coefficients for midazolam (Figure V.6), propofol and thiopentone of 0.78, 0.63 and 0.52 respectively.

Mood score, incidence of sleep and coma score analysis showed no significant differences between the three drug groups, however memory recall after anaesthesia was significantly better than after natural, unmedicated sleep, although the performance error rates in all groups were small (Table V.8). The mean number of

errors in preoperative overnight memory recall for all three groups of children was 2.0(1.6)[1-6], that of postoperative errors was 1.2(0.6)[1-4]. Thiopentone group showed significant less number of recall errors postoperatively ($p=0.02$). In the propofol and midazolam groups, there was no statistical significant difference in the number of preoperative and postoperative memory recall errors ($p=0.27$ and 0.14 respectively).

TABLE V.8 Mood, sedation and memory data for the three induction agent groups. *Data are mean (SD)[range].*

	Midazolam (n = 10)	Propofol (n = 10)	Thiopentone (n = 10)	p value	Statistical analysis
Co-operation					
refused	1	0	0	0.36	Chi-square analysis
willing	9	10	10		
Sleep assessment					
asleep	4	3	2	0.71	Chi-square analysis
awake	6	7	8		
Mood score					
1-3 = happy	7	9	8	0.61	Chi-square analysis
4, 5= unhappy	3	1	2		
Postoperative Coma Score					
Awake	5.9(1.2)[4-8]	6.1(1.3)[4-8]	6.2(1.9)[3-9]	0.9	Kruskal-Wallis statistic
	7.4(1.2)[5-9]	8.1(1.2)[6-9]	6.9(2.4)[3-9]	0.42	
120 min	8.6(1.0)[6-9]	8.5(1.1)[6-9]	9.0(0.0)[9-9]	0.33	
180 min	9.0(0.0)[9-9]	8.9(0.3)[8-9]	9.0(0.0)[9-9]	0.37	
240 min	8.8(0.6)[7-9]	9.0(0.0)[9-9]	9.0(0.0)[9-9]	0.37	
No. of recall errors overnight	2.2(2.0)[1-6]	1.4(0.7)[1-3]	2.3(1.8)[1-6]	0.43	Kruskal-Wallis statistic
No. of recall errors post- operatively	1.2(0.4)[1-2]	1.3(1.0)[1-4]	1.1(0.3)[1-2]	0.80	Kruskal-Wallis statistic

DISCUSSION

The time taken for the child to identify himself was independent of the duration of anaesthesia and predominantly influenced by the induction agent administered, although identification after thiopentone administration was more closely associated with anaesthetic duration than midazolam or propofol. Children awoke more quickly after propofol compared to thiopentone and midazolam however this only reached statistical significance when self identification time was compared between the three groups and not the time of eye opening ($p=0.05$). This illustrates the greater sensitivity of cognitive awareness compared to the more simple physical tests of awakening which presumably require greater patient numbers to demonstrate significance and prevent a type II statistical error. Furthermore, time to eye opening is not related to time of attaining hospital discharge criteria in children following anaesthesia with sevoflurane (Sarner et al, 1995).

Psychomotor performance on awakening was worst in the midazolam group but 1 hour later there was no statistical difference between the groups, and by 4 hours all groups were virtually identical in performance with both tests. Psychomotor improvement paralleled drug redistribution and metabolism but some children were able to perform at unmedicated levels after 1 hour, despite significant induction agent blood levels. The narrower range of awakening drug concentrations in patients induced with midazolam may be associated with greater predictability of recovery, whereas like other workers, this study demonstrated that the awakening blood concentrations of thiopentone and propofol varied widely (Kay et al, 1985). The more

gradual decline of midazolam levels produces more somnolent patients in the early postoperative phase, which under some circumstances may be advantageous. All patients could be discharged 3 hours after awakening having achieved 90% of their unmedicated psychomotor performance, confirming the work of Runcie and colleagues (Runcie et al, 1993).

The association between serum midazolam levels and PBTR and WISC-R ratio was stronger than both propofol and thiopentone in the postoperative period, inferring a closer relationship between blood levels and cerebral effect and therefore a more predictable pattern of postoperative awakening in children induced with midazolam. Coma score and mood assessment lacked both specificity and sensitivity in recovery assessment and were not helpful in differentiating between the induction agents. This was disappointing as previous work discussed in *Chapter IV* had shown that children receiving midazolam and flumazenil appeared calmer and more compliant in accord with the anxiolytic properties of the drug and serum levels (Geller et al, 1988).

Despite the specific effect of benzodiazepines on recall and recognition components of memory which rely on personal experiences within specific contexts (Ghoneim and Mewaldt, 1990), memory recall of a picture card viewed 2 hours after oral administration of midazolam and anaesthesia, was better than memory recall after unmedicated, natural sleep. This finding is probably not clinically meaningful as the sample groups were small, the error rate in one child could have a disproportionate influence on the group as a whole and like Twersky and colleagues we found a higher

number of false positive recall responses in children less than six years (Twersky et al, 1993). It is inappropriate to covary emeory scores for age and false positive 'guess' responses because of the small uncontrolled (no placebo) sample groups, the descriptive nature of this part of the study and the lack of age based norms. Furthermore the serum midazolam levels were not in the adult amnesic range 2 hours after oral administration and the children may have experienced heightened awareness in the unfamiliar operating theatre environment (File and Lister, 1982).

This study has demonstrated the suitability of the post box toy ratio for measurement of psychomotor performance in children because of its simplicity and ease of use in the clinical environment, although it suffers the limitations of familiarity as do other tests of this type. Rapid recovery of cognitive function in the recovery room is best achieved with propofol but 4 hours after awakening all children were equally suitable for discharge irrespective of the induction agent administered.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

&

CONCLUSIONS

Midazolam possesses many of the properties of an ideal anaesthetic agent but introduction of the drug into paediatric anaesthetic practice requires an evaluation of its suitability in children. The objectives of this thesis were

- to investigate the effects of midazolam on psychomotor function and oxygen desaturation when administered as a premedicant in children
- to describe the pharmacokinetic disposition of midazolam, flumazenil and propofol in children
- to investigate the induction pharmacodynamics and psychomotor recovery following administration of midazolam in elective paediatric anaesthetic practice, and compare these data with midazolam antagonised with flumazenil, propofol and thiopentone.

Premedication

The incidence of oxygen desaturation episodes during the 2 hours immediately before induction of anaesthesia, following administration of midazolam 0.5 mg kg^{-1} orally, was low and of minimal clinical significance (Jones et al, 1993b). Neither the time spent desaturated, the degree of desaturation or the frequency of desaturation episodes was significantly different from normal, unmedicated sleep. Furthermore, the incidence of desaturation after midazolam was not significantly different to that found after administration of another commonly prescribed premedicant, pethidine. The possibility exists for concluding that midazolam has no effect on oxygen saturation, when in reality it does. In drawing conclusions, the small sample size and data

variability described in this thesis risk Type II error and should be born in mind when interpreting data where no difference was demonstrated with a beta error of < 0.05 . However, computerised acquisition of large volumes of data may result in unmanageable data sets. For example, with respect to the oxygen saturation data, a sample size of 1100 per group would be required to give a probability of 0.8 of rejecting the null hypothesis of equal means if the alternative holds (Dallal, 1990).

Orally administered midazolam in this dose was associated with no dangerous effects in the small samples investigated and is effective without the unwanted effects associated with higher dosage that have been reported by other workers (McMillan et al, 1992). The peak desaturation episode incidence did not coincide with expected peak serum concentrations of midazolam suggesting that any depressant effect on ventilation was independent of serum levels. This is the only study reported to date which has attempted to filter out artefactual desaturation data associated with probe movement and calls into question the findings of other studies which have drawn conclusions directly from raw data (de Santos et al, 1991, Roelofse and de-V-Joubert, 1990).

Oral midazolam resulted in peak serum levels 60 minutes after administration however other workers have described peak sedation at 30 minutes following the same oral dose of midazolam (Weldon et al, 1992) and the maximum decline in psychomotor performance also occurred at 30 minutes in this study. The improved psychomotor performance at 60 minutes may be due to a 'test-retest' practice effect, despite increasing serum concentrations of midazolam. An alternative explanation

may be that the rate of increase of midazolam concentration rather than its absolute value, has a maximal agonist effect on the benzodiazepine receptor-modulated chloride channels, resulting in a coincident maximal decline in psychomotor performance. The benzodiazepine/GABA receptor complex requires a minimum amount of GABA to be present for a benzodiazepine to be effective (Thompson et al, 1988), and the basal state of the receptors in these children is unknown. The incidence of sleep was uniformly distributed throughout the two hour assessment period and was unrelated to serum drug levels. The majority of children presented to the operating room awake, with a quiet and cooperative mood, and on specific questioning, 66% of the children denied feeling frightened. The measured serum midazolam levels at 2 hr remained in the anxiolytic range described for adults (Dundee et al, 1984) and the assessed mood of the children described in this thesis, reinforces the superiority of the drug to placebo (Parnis et al, 1992). Preinduction serum midazolam concentrations were below those associated with anterograde amnesia, and retrograde amnesia was not demonstrated.

Induction

Midazolam is the only hypnotic induction agent that has a specific antagonist. The disposition of midazolam in children has been studied by a number of workers (Salonen et al, 1987; Payne et al, 1989; Rey et al, 1991) but the contemporaneous disposition of flumazenil in children has not previously been reported. In contrast to other workers (Tolia et al, 1991; Salonen et al, 1987; Payne et al, 1989), clearance of midazolam from the plasma was best described by a tri-exponential function because

of an increased sampling rate during the early redistribution phase and better definition of the elimination phase. Differences in pharmacokinetic data can be explained by the different fat distribution in Chinese children, the differing anaesthetic techniques and the age related variation in metabolism of benzodiazepines (Greenblatt et al, 1984).

Flumazenil pharmacokinetic data were suitably interpreted by non-compartmental analysis because of the combined bolus and infusion administration regimen used to reverse midazolam. The steady state volume of distribution of flumazenil was about half that reported in adults, clearance values were similar and the terminal half-life was about 35 minutes (Klotz et al, 1984). The small volume of distribution and high clearance of flumazenil resulted in a terminal half-life which was one third that of midazolam. These findings provide some insight into the resedation controversy (Ashton, 1985). Resedation was presumably due to the residual mild sedative effects of midazolam being relatively unopposed by flumazenil. The decline in serum flumazenil concentration was paralleled by a concomitant decline in serum midazolam concentration, resulting in the children being easily aroused from sleep.

The clinical efficacy of flumazenil in rapidly antagonising the sedative effects of midazolam induction in children had not been previously reported. The flumazenil treated children were significantly more orientated, co-operative and demonstrated better comprehension when compared to the placebo group. The children in this study were both premedicated and induced with midazolam, and all but one child awoke

within 21 minutes of the termination of anaesthesia. This compares very favourably with the children in the propofol pharmacokinetic study. The benzodiazepine receptor is a positive modulatory subunit of the gamma-amino-butyric acid (GABA) receptor complex (Amrein and Hetzel, 1990). Flumazenil antagonism of benzodiazepine effects depends in part, on the number of receptors occupied at the time of flumazenil administration and also the amount of GABA present at the GABA receptor (Haefely, 1988). Neither these receptor models nor the reciprocal dose dependent effects of midazolam and flumazenil fully explain the variable dose response to midazolam and the variable dose requirement of flumazenil in relation to body weight in children, and this requires further investigation. Recommendations to use an antagonist with a shorter half-life than a parent compound must be made with reservation, especially when the response to the agents is variable.

Propofol is the latest intravenous induction agent to be introduced into clinical practice and its reported rapid postoperative recovery prompted a comparison with a midazolam induction technique antagonised by flumazenil. However, pharmacokinetic data for propofol were incomplete in children and a meaningful comparison required that propofol first be investigated in a similar study population. The blood clearance of propofol was best described by a tri-exponential function. The large total body clearance and relatively small volume of distribution for a highly lipophilic drug resulted in a relatively fast elimination of propofol from the blood in children which was constrained by the slow return of propofol to the blood from the deep compartment. Differences from other propofol pharmacokinetic studies may be attributable to the different anaesthetic techniques employed, different types of

surgical procedure, the different sample collection times and the small patient populations examined (Valtonen et al, 1989; Saint-Maurice et al, 1989). The higher clearance and smaller steady state volume of distribution results in a $T_{1/2}^{\gamma}$ which was half, and a $T_{1/2}^{\beta}$ which was 66% that of propofol. Children in the pharmacokinetic study of propofol awoke within 30 minutes of the termination of anaesthesia but unfortunately these data were confounded by the long half-life of the premedicant trimeprazine. Furthermore, compartmental kinetic analysis, although standard practice, has limited direct clinical application because of the between subject variability for many of the parameters.

A number of authors have compared the induction characteristics of propofol and thiopentone but there have been no comparative studies with midazolam in children (Runcie et al, 1993; Mirakhur, 1988). Propofol caused the greatest and most protracted fall in blood pressure after an induction dose of 2.5 mg kg^{-1} administered over 30 seconds into an antecubital vein. Thiopentone 4.0 mg kg^{-1} caused the least haemodynamic perturbation and midazolam 0.5 mg kg^{-1} was associated with a maximum decrease of 20% below baseline mean arterial pressure. Exclusion criteria for this study were designed to provide a homogeneous patient sample who would permit comparison of the induction agent effect on haemodynamics, independent of patient pathology. The relatively slow sampling rate of the Cardiocap could not display the acute haemodynamic changes seen with the noninvasive continuous monitoring of the Finapres during the early induction phase. Although the Finapres demonstrates a wide variability in discrete values, it accurately reflects changes in pressure (Jones et al, 1992b). Thiopentone provided smooth induction conditions in

nearly all children, with an occasional brief period of apnoea being the only side effect. Propofol induction was associated with pain and semi-purposeful arm movement in 50% of patients, while the end point of midazolam induction was less distinct than with the other two agents.

Recovery

Recovery after anaesthesia is multidimensional (Zuurmond et al, 1989). Of particular interest in ambulatory care in children is the immediate recovery of protective reflexes following surgery and the later return to "street fitness" prior to discharge from the ward. Sophisticated tests of psychomotor recovery are not practical in children and a simple, practical, repeatable assessment of suitability for discharge would be useful. Work in this thesis showed the post box toy ratio to be equally as sensitive and specific as the Wechsler intelligence scale ratio-R (matched for race), for the assessment of psychomotor recovery, however the latter assessment was more difficult to perform, particularly in younger children. The residual influence of anaesthesia diminished discrimination between the physical and cognitive components of each test, resulting in an improvement in their correlation. Psychomotor performance on awakening was worst in patients induced with midazolam but not antagonised by flumazenil. At one hour postoperatively there was no statistical difference in psychomotor performance between midazolam, propofol and thiopentone induced children and at 4 hours all children were equally suitable for discharge irrespective of the induction agent administered. Awakening was fastest in

the midazolam children given flumazenil and was equal in quality to the propofol group.

This thesis confirms the hypothesis that midazolam is a suitable and effective premedicant in elective paediatric anaesthetic practice but its acceptance could be improved if the taste of the drug was more efficiently disguised. As an intravenous induction agent, the hypnotic onset of action of midazolam reaches a peak 2-3 minutes after administration in children, unlike propofol and thiopentone which produce hypnosis in one arm-brain circulation time. This relatively slow induction time and indefinite end point limit the application of midazolam as the sole-agent for induction of anaesthesia, however recent work in adults has demonstrated the synergistic effects of pretreatment with midazolam prior to induction with another agent (Tverskoy et al, 1988; Short and Chui, 1991). The place of coinduction and induction agent synergism in children, requires further investigation. There are inherent risks in using an antagonist with a shorter half-life than the parent compound and therefore patient observation must be continued for an appropriate duration.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Midazolam, in a dosage of 0.5 mg kg^{-1} , is a satisfactory oral premedicant in children less than 30 kg.
2. Oral administration of 0.5 mg kg^{-1} midazolam in the children studied did not result in increased incidence of episodic arterial oxygen desaturation above that accompanying normal, unmedicated sleep.
3. Oral administration of 0.5 mg kg^{-1} midazolam as a premedicant in children is not associated with a delay in postoperative recovery or discharge from the ward.
4. Midazolam has a faster clearance and shorter elimination half-life than propofol in healthy Chinese children.
5. Mild resedation occurs following antagonism of an induction dose of midazolam with flumazenil in healthy children because the terminal half-life of flumazenil is one third that of midazolam.
6. In recommended clinical doses, propofol induction is associated with hypotension which is more severe in degree and duration compared to midazolam and thiopentone, in healthy children undergoing minor surgery.
7. Midazolam antagonised with flumazenil produced a rapid immediate recovery of consciousness, equivalent in quality to propofol.
8. Two hours postoperatively there was no significant difference in psychomotor performance, irrespective of which induction agent was administered and all patients were assessed as "street-fit" for discharge from the ward at four hours.

9. The post box toy ratio was not only as effective as the Wechsler intelligence scale ratio in assessing postoperative psychomotor function, but was more easily performed in children.
10. Accurate interpretation of pulse oximetry profiles require prior exclusion of artefactual data.

REFERENCES

- Aitken H.A., Todd J.G., Kenny G.N.C. (1991) Comparison of the Finapres and direct arterial pressure monitoring during profound hypotensive anaesthesia. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **67**: 36-40.
- Alexander C.M., Teller L.E., Gross J.B. (1992) Slow injection does not prevent midazolam-induced ventilatory depression. *Anesthesia and analgesia*. **74**: 260-264.
- Alon E., Baitella L., Hossli G. (1987) Double blind study of the reversal of midazolam - supplemented general anaesthesia with Ro 15-1788. *British Journal of Anaesthesia*. **59**: 455-458.
- Altman D.G. and Bland J.M. (1983) Measurement in medicine: the analysis of method comparison studies. *Statistician*. **32**: 307-317.
- Amrein R., Hetzel W., Bonetti E.P. et al (1988) Clinical pharmacology of dormicum (midazolam) and anexate (flumazenil). *Resuscitation*. **16** (Suppl.): S5-S27.
- Amrein R. and Hetzel W. (1990) Pharmacology of Dormicum (midazolam) and anexate (flumazenil). *Acta anaesthesiologica scandinavica*. **34** (Suppl.92):6-15.
- Anderson S., McGuire R., McKeown D. (1985) Comparison of the cognitive effects of premedication with hyoscine and atropine. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **57**: 169-173.
- Arendt R.M., Greenblatt D.J., Garland W.A. (1984) Quantitation by gas chromatography of the 1- and 4-hydroxy metabolites of midazolam in human plasma. *Pharmacology*. **29**: 158-164.
- Ashton C.H. (1985) Benzodiazepine overdose: are specific antagonists useful? *British medical journal*. **290**: 805-806.

- Association for the advancement of Medical Instrumentation (1990). American national standard for electronic or automated sphygmomanometers. *American national standards Inc..* **1087**: 313.
- Aun C.S.T., Short S.M., Leung D.H.Y. et al (1992) The induction dose-response of propofol in unpremedicated children. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **68**: 64-67.
- Bacon-Shone J. and Laurent C. (1989) *MRSP 4.3* (Market Research Statistical Pack). Hong Kong : Good Figures Ltd.
- Björkman S., Gabrielsson J., Quaynor H. et al (1987) Pharmacokinetics of I.V. and rectal methohexitone in children. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **59**: 1541-1547.
- Boxenbaum H.C., Riegelman S., Elashoff R.M. (1974) Statistical estimation in pharmacokinetics. *Journal of pharmacokinetics and biopharmaceutics*. **2**: 123-148.
- BPM monitoring system software v 1.2* (1991) Electronic Services Unit. The University of Hong Kong.
- Breimer L.T.M., Hennis P.J., Burm A.G.L. et al (1991) Pharmacokinetics and EEG effects of flumazenil in volunteers. *Clinical pharmacokinetics*. **20**: 491-496.
- Breimer L.T.M., Burm A.G.L., Danhof M. et al (1991) Pharmacokinetic-pharmacodynamic modelling of the interaction between flumazenil and midazolam in volunteers by aperiodic EEG analysis. *Clinical pharmacokinetics*. **20**: 497-508.
- Briggs L.P., White M., Cockshott I.D. et al (1985) The pharmacokinetics of propofol ('Diprivan') in female patients (abstract). *Postgraduate medical journal*. **61** (Suppl 3): 58-59.
- Brown T.C.K. and Fisk G.C. (1979) Anatomy and physiology. In: *Anaesthesia for children*. Oxford: Blackwell Scientific Publications, pp.1-19.

- Cashman J.N. and Power S.J. (1989) An evaluation of tests of psychomotor function in assessing recovery following a brief anaesthetic. *Acta anaesthesiologica scandinavica*. **33**: 693-697.
- Chan K., Tse J., Jennings F. et al (1987) Disposition of pethidine in man under acidic urinary pH 3. A comparison of pharmacokinetics among Caucasians, Chinese and Indian subjects. *Methods and findings in experimental and clinical pharmacology*. **9**: 243-250.
- Chan K., Tse J., Jennings F. et al (1990) Disposition of pethidine in man under acidic urinary pH 4. Kinetics after oral dose in Caucasian, Chinese and Indian subjects. *Methods and findings in experimental clinical pharmacology*. **12**: 61-67.
- Chan K. and Gin T. (1990) Liquid chromatographic assay for propofol, a new I.V. anaesthetic, in maternal and umbilical blood samples. *Neuroscience letters*. **37**(Suppl): S23.
- Chan S.S.C. (1991) BPM monitoring system software ver.1.2. *Electronic services unit*, The University of Hong Kong.
- Chiolero R.L., Ravussin P., Chassot P.G. et al (1986) Ro 15-1788 for rapid recovery after craniotomy. *Anesthesiology*. **65**: A466.
- Chung F., Lavelle P.A., McDonald S. et al (1989) Cognitive impairment after neuroleptanalgesia in cataract surgery. *Anesthesia and analgesia*. **68**: 614-618.
- Clausen T.G., Wolff J., Hansen P.B. et al (1988) Pharmacokinetics of midazolam and a-hydroxy-midazolam after rectal and intravenous administration. *British journal of clinical pharmacology*. **25**: 458-463.
- Coetzee A., Fourie P., Coetzee J., et al (1989) Effect of various propofol plasma concentrations on regional myocardial contractility and left ventricular afterload. *Anesthesia and analgesia*. **69**: 473-483.

- Cockshott, ID. (1985) Propofol ('Diprivan') pharmacokinetics and metabolism - an overview. *Postgraduate medical journal*. **61** (Suppl.3): 45-50.
- Cook, D.R. (1992) Premedication and induction techniques for infants and children. *Seminars in anesthesia*. **9**: 229-242.
- Cole W.H.J. (1982) Midazolam in paediatric anaesthesia. *Anaesthesia and intensive care*. **10**: 36-99.
- Cormack R.S. and Lehane J. (1984) Difficult tracheal intubation in obstetrics. *Anaesthesia*. **39**: 1105-1111.
- Craig J., Cooper G.M., Sear J.W. (1982) Recovery from day-case anaesthesia : comparison between methohexitone, althesin and etomidate. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **54**: 447-451.
- CSS (*Complete Statistical System*): *Statistica* (1991) Volumes I-III. Tulsa: Statsoft Inc.
- Dahan A. and Ward D.S. (1991) Effect of i.v. midazolam on the ventilatory response to sustained hypoxia in man. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **66**: 454-457.
- Dallal G.E. (1990) PC-SIZE: Consultant - a program for sample size determinations. *The American statistician*. **44**: 243.
- de Santos P., Chabas E., Valero R. et al (1991) Comparison of intramuscular and intranasal premedication with midazolam in children. *Revista Espanola de anestesiologica y reanimation* **38**: 12-15.
- Destibats B., Maurette P., Castagnera L. (1987) Surgery of the spinal cord: propofol versus methohexitone. *Annales Françaises d'anesthésie et de réanimation*. **6**: 301-305.
- Dundee J.W., Moore J., Nicholl R.M. (1962) Studies of drugs given before anaesthesia. I: A method of pre-operative assessment. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **34**: 458-463.

- Dundee J.W. (1984) History of intravenous anaesthesia. In: J.W. Sear (ed) *Clinics in Anaesthesiology*, Vol 2. Oxford: W.B. Saunders Company, pp 5-25.
- Dundee J.W., Halliday N.J., Harper K.W., et al (1984) Midazolam. A review of its pharmacological properties and therapeutic use. *Drugs*. **28**: 519-543.
- Dripps R.D., Lamont A., Eckenhoff J.E. (1961) The role of anesthesia in surgical mortality. *Journal of the American medical association*. **178**: 261-266.
- Edwards D.J., Svensson C.K., Visco J.P. et al (1982) Clinical pharmacokinetics of pethidine: 1982. *Clinical pharmacokinetics*. **7**: 421-433.
- Einstein S., Goodrow D., MacDonald K. (1992) Satmaster, revision **6.9b** E.M.G. Scientific. California. U.S.A.
- Eger E.I. II, Bahlman S.H. and Munson E.S. (1971) The effect of age on the rate of increase of alveolar anesthetic concentration. *Anesthesiology*. **35**: 365-372.
- Fahy L.T., Van Mourik G.A., Utting J.E. (1985) A comparison of the induction characteristics of thiopentone and propofol (2,6-diisopropyl phenol). *Anaesthesia*. **40**: 939-944.
- Feychting, H. (1985) Premedication and psychological preparation. In E. Sumner and D.J. Hatch (eds) *Clinics in anaesthesiology*. London: W.B. Saunders Company, pp 505-514.
- Feld L., Negus J.B. and White P.F. (1990) Oral midazolam preanaesthetic medication in pediatric outpatients. *Anesthesiology*. **73**: 831-834.
- File S.E. and Lister R.G. (1982). Do lorazepam-induced deficits in learning result from impaired rehearsal, reduced motivation or increased sedation. *British journal of clinical pharmacology*. **14**: 545-550.
- Fisher D.M. (1994) Propofol in pediatrics: Lessons in pharmacokinetic modeling. *Anesthesiology*. **80**: 2-5.

- Foëx P., Diedericks J., Sear J.W. (1991) Cardiovascular effects of propofol. *Journal of drug development*. 4: 3-9.
- Fragen, R.J. (1988) Benzodiazepines and their antagonists. *Seminars in anesthesia*. 7: 137-142.
- Friis-Hansen, B. (1971) Body composition during growth. *Pediatrics*. 47: 264-274.
- Gamble J.A.S., Kwar P., Dundee J.W. (1981) Evaluation of midazolam as an intravenous induction agent. *Anaesthesia*. 36: 868-873.
- Geller E., Chernilas J., Halpern P. (1986) Hemodynamics following reversal of benzodiazepine sedation with Ro 15-1788 in cardiac patients. *Anesthesiology*. 65: A49.
- Geller E., Silbiger A., Niv D. et al (1986) The reversal of benzodiazepine sedation with Ro15-1788 in brief procedures. *Anesthesiology*. 65: A357.
- Geller E., Weinbroum A., Halpern P. et al (1987) Flumazenil, the specific benzodiazepine receptor antagonist (Ro 15-1788), affects recovery from halothane anesthesia. *Anesthesiology*. 67: A422.
- Geller E., Niv D., Nevo Y. et al (1988) Early clinical experience in reversing benzodiazepine sedation with flumazenil after short procedures. *Resuscitation*. 16(Suppl): S49-S56.
- Geller E., Weinbrum A., Schiff B. et al (1988) The effects of flumazenil on the process of recovery from halothane anaesthesia. *European journal of anaesthesiology*. 2(Suppl): 151-153.
- Geller E., and Halpern P. (1991) Benzodiazepine antagonists. In: P.W. Lebowitz (ed) *International anesthesiology clinics*, Vol 29. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, pp. 69-81.

- Gepts E. and Camu F. (1991) Pharmacokinetics of intravenous agents. In: P.F White (ed) *Baillière's clinical anaesthesiology*, Vol 5. London: Baillière Tindall, pp 513-542.
- Gerecke M. (1983) Chemical structure and properties of midazolam compared with other benzodiazepines. *British journal of clinical pharmacology*. 16: 11S-16S.
- Ghoneim M.M., Mewaldt S.P. (1990) Benzodiazepines and human memory: A review. *Anesthesiology*. 72: 926-938.
- Giaufré E., Conte Devolx B., Morrisson Lacombe G. et al (1985) Anesthésie péridurale par voie caudale chez l'enfant. Etude des variations endocriniennes. *Presse Medicale* 14: 197-199.
- Giaufré E. (1990) Physiological considerations. In: C. Saint Maurice & O. Schulte-Steinberg (eds) *Regional Anaesthesia in Children*, Fribourg: Mediglobe, pp. 26-38.
- Giaufré E., Bruguerolle B., Morrisson Lacombe G. et al (1990a) The influence of midazolam on the plasma concentration of bupivacaine and lidocaine after caudal injection of a mixture of the local anaesthetics in children. *Acta anaesthesiologica Scandinavica*. 34: 44-46.
- Giaufré E., Bruguerolle B., Morrisson Lacombe G. et al (1990b) Influence of midazolam on the plasma concentrations of mepivacaine after lumbar epidural injection in children. *European journal of clinical pharmacology*. 38: 91-91.
- Gibaldi M. and Perrier D. (1982a) Non compartmental analysis based on statistical moment theory. In: J. Swarbrick (ed) *Drugs and the pharmaceutical sciences*, Vol 15. New York: Marcel Dekker, pp. 271-318.
- Gibaldi M. and Perrier D. (1982b) Pharmacokinetics. In J. Swarbrick (ed) *Drugs and the pharmaceutical sciences*, Vol 15. New York: Marcel Dekker, pp 271-318.

- Gibbs N.M., Larach D.R., Derr J.A. (1991) The accuracy of Finapres noninvasive mean arterial pressure measurements in anesthetized patients. *Anesthesiology*. **74**: 647-652.
- Gillies G.W. and Lees N.W. (1989) The effect of speed of injection on induction with propofol. *Anaesthesia*. **44**: 386-388.
- Gin T., Gregory M.A., Chan K. et al (1990) The pharmacokinetics of propofol in women undergoing elective Caesarean section. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **64**: 148-153.
- Glantz S.A. (1989) *Primer of bio-statistics*. 2nd ed. Singapore: McGraw-Hill Book Co.
- Greenblatt D.J., Abernethy D.R., Locniskar A. et al (1984) Effect of age, gender and obesity on midazolam kinetics. *Anesthesiology*. **61**: 27-35.
- Goodchild C.S. and Noble J. (1987) The effects of intrathecal midazolam on sympathetic nervous system reflexes in man - a pilot study. *British journal of clinical pharmacology*. **23**: 279-285.
- Gorback M.S., Quill T.J., Lavine M.L. (1991) The relative accuracies of two automated noninvasive arterial pressure measurement devices. *Journal of clinical monitoring*. **7**: 13-22.
- Gouyet L., Dubois M.C., Murat I. et al (1991) Insulin response during regional anesthesia in children. *Anesthesiology*. **75**: A943.
- Gutstein H.B., Johnson K.L., Heard M.B., et al. (1992) Oral ketamine preanesthetic medication in children. *Anesthesiology*. **76**: 28-33.
- Haefely W. (1988) Partial agonists of the benzodiazepine receptor: from animal data to results in patients. In: G. Biggio and E. Costa (eds) *Chloride channels and their modulation by neurotransmitters and drugs*. New York: Raven Press, pp 275-292.

- Haefely W. (1988) The preclinical pharmacology of flumazenil. *European journal of anaesthesiology*. 2(suppl): 25-26.
- Hannallah R.S. and Epstein B.S. (1991) Anesthesia for ambulatory surgery. In: B.V. Wetchler (ed) *Management of the pediatric patient*. Philadelphia: JB Lippincott Company, pp 131-195.
- Hannallah R.S., Baker S.B., Casey W., et al (1991) Propofol: effective dose and induction characteristics in unpremedicated children. *Anesthesiology*. 74: 217-219.
- Hannallah R.S. (1992) Anesthesia for pediatric outpatients. In: *1992 Annual refresher course lectures*, Vol 43. New Orleans: American society of anesthesiologists, Inc., pp.133.
- Hannallah, R.S. (1992) Ambulatory anesthesia in children. *Seminars in anesthesia*. 11: 303-308.
- Hartung I. and Freye E. (1988) An open comparison of propofol and enflurane for prolonged abdominal operations. *Anaesthesia*. 43 (Suppl): 105-107.
- Heikkilä H., Jalonon J., Arola M., et al (1984) Midazolam as adjunct to high-dose fentanyl anaesthesia for coronary artery bypass grafting operation. *Acta anaesthesiologica scandinavica*. 28: 683-689.
- Henthorn T.K. and Avram M.J. (1991) Pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic principles. In: P.F. White (ed) *Baillière's Clinical Anaesthesiology* Vol 5.. London: Baillière Tindall, pp 489-511.
- Higgitt D., Lader M., Fonagy P. (1986) The effects of the benzodiazepine antagonist Ro 15-1788 on psychophysiological performance and subjective measures in normal subjects. *Psychopharmacology*. 89: 395-403.

- Hiller A. and Saarnivaara L. (1992) Injection pain, cardiovascular changes and recovery following induction of anaesthesia with propofol in combination with alfentanil or lignocaine in children. *Acta anaesthesiologica scandinavica*. **36**: 564-568.
- Hindmarch I. and Bhatti J.Z. (1987). Recovery of cognitive and psychomotor function following anaesthesia. A review. In I. Hindmarch, J.G. Jones and E. Moss (eds) *Aspects of recovery from anaesthesia*. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons, pp 113-126.
- Hogg J.C., Williams J., Richardson J.B. et al (1970) Age as a factor in the distribution of lower-airway conductance and in the pathologic anatomy of obstructive lung disease. *New England journal of medicine*. **282**: 1283-1287.
- Holloway A.M., Jordaan D.G., Brock-Utne J.G. (1982) Midazolam for the intravenous induction of anaesthesia in children. *Anaesthesia and intensive care*. **10**: 340-343.
- Hunkeler W., Möhler H., Pieri L., et al (1981) Selective antagonists of benzodiazepines. *Nature*. **290**: 514-516.
- Hunkeler, W. (1988) Preclinical research findings with flumazenil (Ro 15-1788, Anexate): chemistry. *European journal of anaesthesiology*. **2**(suppl): 37-62.
- Inagaki Y., Sumikawa K., Yoshiya I. (1993) Anesthetic interaction between midazolam and halothane in humans. *Anesthesia and analgesia*. **76**: 613-617.
- Jones R.D.M., Kapoor S.C., Warren S.J. et al (1990) Effect of premedication on arterial blood gases prior to cardiac surgery. *Anaesthesia and intensive care*. **18**: 15-21.
- Jones R.D.M., Chan K., Andrew L.J. (1990a) Pharmacokinetics of propofol in children. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **65**: 661-667.

- Jones R.D.M., Lawson A.D., Andrew L.J. et al (1991) Antagonism of the hypnotic effect of midazolam in children: a randomized, double blind study of placebo and flumazenil administered after midazolam-induced anaesthesia. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **66**: 660-666.
- Jones R.D.M., Lawson A.D., Gunawardene W.M.S., et al (1992) An evaluation of prolonged oximetric data acquisition. *Anaesthesia and intensive care*. **20**: 303-307.
- Jones R.D.M., Brown A.G., Roulson C.J. et al (1992b) The upgraded Finapres 2300e: A clinical evaluation of a continuous noninvasive blood pressure monitor. *Anaesthesia*. **47**: 701-705.
- Jones R.D.M., Chan K., Roulson C.J. et al (1993) Pharmacokinetics of flumazenil and midazolam. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **70**: 286-292.
- Jones R.D.M., Kornberg J.P., Roulson C.J. et al (1993a) The Finapres 2300e finger cuff: The influence of cuff application on the accuracy of blood pressure measurement. *Anaesthesia*. **48**: 611-615.
- Jones R.D.M., Visram A.R., Kornberg J.P. et al (1993b). The effect of premedication on oxygen saturation in children undergoing elective surgery. *European journal of anaesthesiology*. **11**: 307-311.
- Jones R.D.M., Visram A.R., Kornberg J.P. et al (1993c). Premedication with oral midazolam in children - an assessment of psychomotor function, anxiolysis, sedation and pharmacokinetics. *Anaesthesia and intensive care*. **22**: 539-544.
- Jones R.D.M., Chan M.M.Y., Bacon-Shone J. et al (1993d). A comparison of three induction agents in paediatric anaesthesia - cardiovascular effects and recovery. *Anaesthesia and intensive care*. **22**: 545-555.

- Jones, R.M. (1989) "Inhalational and intravenous anaesthetic agents." In W.S. Nimmo and G. Smith (eds) *Anaesthesia*. Oxford: Blackwell Scientific Publications, pp.50-59.
- Kaplan J.A. (1987) Hemodynamic monitoring. In: J.A. Kaplan (ed) *Cardiac Anesthesia*, 2nd edn. Vol 1. Orlando: Grune and Stratton, pp 179-185.
- Kapur P.A. (1992) Ambulatory anesthesia. In: *1992 Review course lectures*. Cleveland: International anesthesia research society, pp. 114-119.
- Kay N.H., Uppington J., Sear J.W. et al (1985) Pharmacokinetics of propofol ('Diprivan') as an induction agent. *Postgraduate medical journal*. **61** (Suppl): 55-57.
- Kissin I., Vinik H.R., Castillo R. et al (1990) Alfentanil potentiates midazolam-induced unconsciousness in subanalgesic doses. *Anaesthesia and analgesia*. **71**: 65-69.
- Kopman E.A. and Ramirez-Inawat R.C. (1980) Arterial hypoxaemia following premedication in patients with coronary artery disease. *Canadian anaesthetists society journal*. **27**: 132-134.
- Kapur P.A. (1992) Ambulatory anesthesia. In: *1992 Review Course Lectures*. Cleveland: International anesthesia research society, pp 114-119.
- Kataria B.K., Ved S.A., Nicodemus H.F., et al (1994) The pharmacokinetics of propofol in children using three different data analysis approaches. *Anesthesiology*. **80**: 104-122.
- Kay N.H., Uppington J., Sear J.W. et al (1985) Pharmacokinetics of propofol ('Diprivan') as an induction agent. *Postgraduate medical journal*. **61**: 55-57.

- Kay N.H., Sear J.W., Uppington J. et al (1986) Disposition of propofol in patients undergoing surgery. A comparison in men and women. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **58**: 1075-1079.
- Kirkpatrick T., Cockshott I.D., Douglas E.J. et al (1988) Pharmacokinetics of propofol (Diprivan) in elderly patients. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **60**: 146-150.
- Klotz U., Ziegler G., Reimann I.W. (1984) Pharmacokinetics of the selective benzodiazepine antagonist Ro 15-1788 in man. *European journal of clinical pharmacology*. **27**: 115-117.
- Klotz U. and Kanto J. (1988) Pharmacokinetics and clinical use of flumazenil (Ro 15-1788). *Clinical pharmacokinetics*. **14**: 1-12.
- Krane E.J., Jacobson L.E., Lynn A.M. et al (1987) Caudal morphine for postoperative analgesia in children: A comparison with caudal bupivacaine and intravenous morphine. *Anesthesia and analgesia*. **66**: 647-653.
- Kumana C.R., Lauder I.J., Chan M. et al (1987) Differences in diazepam pharmacokinetics in Chinese and white Caucasians - relation to body lipid stores. *European journal of clinical pharmacology*. **32**: 211-215.
- Langton J.A. and Hanning C.D. (1990) Effect of motion artefact on pulse oximeters: evaluation of four instruments and finger probes. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **65**: 564-570.
- Lauven P.M., Schwilden H., Stoeckel H., et al (1985) The effects of a benzodiazepine antagonist Ro 15-1788 in the presence of stable concentrations of midazolam. *Anesthesiology*. **63**: 61-64.

- Lauven P.M. and Kulka P.J. (1990) Anaesthesia techniques for midazolam and flumazenil - an overview. *Acta anaesthesiologica scandinavica*. **34** (Suppl. 92): 84-89.
- Lindahl S.G.E. (1990) The use of midazolam in premedication. *Acta anaesthesiologica scandinavica*. **34** (Suppl. 92): 79-83.
- Mackenzie N. and Grant I.S. (1985) Comparison of the new emulsion formulation of propofol with methohexitone and thiopentone for induction of anaesthesia in day cases. *British journal of anaesthesia* **57**: 725-731.
- Maitre P.O., Funk B., Crevoisier C. et al (1989) Pharmacokinetics of midazolam in patients recovering from cardiac surgery. *European journal of clinical pharmacology*. **37**: 161-166.
- Manchikanti L., Colliver J.A., Marrero T.C. et al. (1984) Ranitidine and metoclopramide for prophylaxis of aspiration pneumonitis in elective surgery. *Anesthesia and analgesia*. **63**: 903-910.
- Marshall B.E. and Longnecker D.E. (1990) General anesthetics. In: A.G. Gillman, T.W. Rall, A.S. Nies and P. Taylor (eds). *The pharmacological basis of therapeutics* 8th ed. New York: Pergamon Press, pp 300-310.
- Martin T.M., Nicolson S.C., Bargas M.S. (1993) Propofol anesthesia reduces emesis and airway obstruction in pediatric outpatients. *Anesthesia and analgesia*. **76**: 144-148.
- Massaut J., d'Hollander A., Barvais L., et al (1983) Haemodynamic effects of midazolam in the anaesthetised patient with coronary artery disease. *Acta anaesthesiologica scandinavica*. **27**: 299-302.
- Mather L.E., Selby D.G., Runciman W.B. (1987) Pharmacology of propofol ('Diprivan'). *Anaesthesia and intensive care*. **15**: 112-113.

- McCollum J.S.C. and Dundee J.W. (1986) Comparison of induction characteristics of four intravenous anaesthetic agents. *Anaesthesia*. **41**: 995-1000.
- McMillan C.O., Spahr-Schopfer I.A., Sikich N. et al (1992). Premedication of children with oral midazolam. *Canadian journal of anaesthesia*. **39**: 545-550.
- Meistelman C., Saint-Maurice C., Lepaul M., et al (1987) A comparison of alfentanil pharmacokinetics in children and adults. *Anesthesiology*. **66**: 13-16.
- Michalk S., Moncorge C., Fichelle A. et al (1986) Long term midazolam infusion for basal sedation in intensive care: a clinical and pharmacokinetic study. *Anesthesiology*. **65**: A66.
- Millar J.M. and Jewkes C.F. (1988) Recovery and morbidity after daycase anaesthesia. A comparison of propofol with thiopentone-enflurane with and without alfentanil. *Anaesthesia*. **43**: 738-743.
- Minitab Reference Manual*. Release 7 (1989). Valley Forge: Minitab Inc..
- Mirakhur R.K., Shepherd W.F.I., Darrah W.C. (1987) Propofol or thiopentone: effects on intraocular pressure associated with induction of anaesthesia and tracheal intubation (facilitated with suxamethonium). *British journal of anaesthesia*. **59**: 431-436.
- Mirakhur R.K. (1988) Induction characteristics of propofol in children: comparison with thiopentone. *Anaesthesia*. **43**: 593-598.
- Moretti R.J., Hassan S.Z., Goodman L.I. et al (1984) Comparison of ketamine and thiopental in healthy volunteers: Effects on mental status, mood, and personality. *Anesthesia and analgesia*. **63**: 1087-1096.
- Nicolson S.C., Betts E.K., Jobes D.R. et al (1989) Comparison of oral and intramuscular preanesthetic medication for pediatric inpatient surgery. *Anesthesiology*. **71**: 8-10.

- Nilsson A., Persson M.P., Hartvig P. (1988) Effects of flumazenil on post-operative recovery after total intravenous anaesthesia with midazolam and alfentanil. *European journal of anaesthesiology*. **2**(suppl): 251-6.
- Nilsson, A. (1991) Pharmacokinetics of benzodiazepines and their antagonists. In: P.F. White (ed) *Kinetics of anaesthetic drugs in clinical anaesthesiology*. London: Bailliere-Tindall, pp 615-634.
- Nunn J.F. and Bergman N.A. (1964) The effect of atropine on pulmonary gas exchange. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **36**: 68-73.
- Olsson G.L., Bejersten A., Feychting H., et al (1983) Plasma concentrations of atropine after rectal administration. *Anaesthesia*. **38**: 1179-1182.
- O'Sullivan G., Sear J.W., Bullingham R.E., et al (1985) The effect of magnesium trisilicate mixture, metoclopramide and ranitidine on gastric pH, volume and serum gastrin. *Anaesthesia*. **40**: 246-253.
- Pace N.L. and East T.D. (1991) Simultaneous comparison of intraarterial, oscillometric and Finapres monitoring during anesthesia. *Anesthesia and analgesia*. **73**: 213-220.
- Parnis S.J., Foate J.A., van der Walt J.H., et al (1992) Oral midazolam is an effective premedication for children having day-stay anaesthesia. *Anaesthesia and intensive care*. **20**: 9-14.
- Patel D.K., Keeling P.A., Newman G.B. et al (1988) Induction dose of propofol in children. *Anaesthesia*. **43**: 949-952.
- Patel R. and Rice L.J. (1991) Special considerations in recovery of children from anesthesia. In: P.W. Lebowitz (ed) *International anesthesiology clinics*, Vol **29**. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, pp. 55-68.

- Payne K., Mattheyse F.J., Liebenberg B., et al (1989) The pharmacokinetics of midazolam in pediatric patients. *European journal of clinical pharmacology*. **37**: 267-272.
- Pentikainen P.J., Valisalmi L., Himberg J.J. et al (1989) Pharmacokinetics of midazolam following intravenous and oral administration in patients with chronic liver disease and in healthy subjects. *Journal of clinical pharmacology*. **29**: 272-277.
- Persson M.P., Nilsson A., Hartvig P. et al (1987) Pharmacokinetics of midazolam in total intravenous anaesthesia. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **59**: 548-556.
- Persson M.P., Nilsson A., Hartvig P. (1988) Relation of sedation and amnesia to plasma concentrations of midazolam in surgical patients. *Clinical pharmacology and therapeutics* **43**: 324-331.
- Pierce J.A. and Carofalo M.L. (1965) Preoperative medication and its effect on blood gases. *Journal of the American medical association*. **194**: 487-490.
- Pieri L. (1983) Preclinical pharmacology of midazolam. *British journal of clinical pharmacology*. **16**: S17-S27.
- Plummer G.F. (1987) Improved method for the determination of propofol in blood by high performance liquid chromatography with fluorescence detection. *Journal of chromatography*. **421**: 171-176.
- Prys-Roberts C. (1981) Cardiovascular monitoring in patients with vascular disease. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **53**: 767-776.
- Purcell-Jones G., Yates A., Baker J.R. (1987) Comparison of the induction characteristics of thiopentone and propofol in children. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **59**: 1431-1436.

- Raeder J.C., Nilsen O.G., Hole A. (1988) The use of flumazenil after total i.v. anaesthesia with midazolam in out-patients. *European journal of anaesthesiology*. **2**(Suppl): 257-264.
- Reves J.G., Samuelson P.N., Lewis S. (1979) Midazolam maleate induction in patients with ischaemic heart disease: haemodynamic observations. *Canadian anaesthetists' society journal*. **26**: 402-409.
- Reves J.G. (1984) Benzodiazepines. In: Prys-Roberts C & Hug CC (eds) *Pharmacokinetics of anesthesia*. Oxford: Blackwell, pp 157-186.
- Reves J.G., Fragen R.J., Vinik R. et al (1985) Midazolam: pharmacology and uses. *Anesthesiology*. **62**: 310-24.
- Rey E., Delaunay L., Pons G. et al (1991) Pharmacokinetics of midazolam in children: comparative study of intranasal and intravenous administration. *European journal of clinical pharmacology*. **41**: 355-357.
- Reynolds L.M., Nicolson S.C., Steven J.M. et al (1993) Influence of sensor site location on pulse oximetry kinetics in children. *Pediatric anesthesia*. **76**: 751-754.
- Ritter J.W., Flacke W.E., Norel E. et al (1988) Adrenergic and hemodynamic response to flumazenil (Ro 15-1788) reversal of midazolam sedation. *Anesthesiology*. **69**: A109.
- Robertson G.S., MacGregor D.M., Jones C.J. et al (1977) Evaluation of doxapram for arousal from general anaesthesia in outpatients. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **49**: 133-139.
- Roelofse J.A. and de-V-Joubert J.J. (1990) Arterial oxygen saturation in children receiving rectal midazolam as premedication for oral surgical procedures. *Anesthesia progress*. **37**: 286-289.

- Rolly G., Versichelen L., Huyghe L., et al (1985) Effect of speed of injection on induction of anaesthesia using propofol. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **57**: 743-746.
- Rollason W.N., Robertson G.S., Cordiner C.H. et al (1971) A comparison of mental function in relation to hypotensive and normotensive anaesthesia in the elderly. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **43**: 561-565.
- Roncari G., Ziegler W.H. and Guentert T.W. (1986) Pharmacokinetics of the new benzodiazepine antagonist Ro 15-1788 in man following intravenous and oral administration. *British journal of clinical pharmacology*. **22**: 421-428.
- Rose E., Simon D., Haberer J.P. (1990) Premedication with intranasal midazolam in pediatric anesthesia. *Annales Francaises d'anesthesie et de reanimation*. **9**: 326-330.
- Runcie C.J., Mackenzie S.J., Arthur D.S. et al (1993) Comparison of recovery from anaesthesia induced in children with either propofol or thiopentone. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **70**: 192-195.
- Ryan B.F., Joiner B.L., Ryan T.A. (1985) *Minitab handbook* 2nd ed. Boston: PWS-Kent Publishing Company.
- Saint-Maurice C., Cockshott I.D., Douglas E.J. et al (1989) Pharmacokinetics of propofol in young children after a single dose. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **63**: 667-670.
- Salonen M., Kanto J., Iisalo E. et al (1987) Midazolam as an induction agent in children: A pharmacokinetic and clinical study. *Anesthesia and analgesia*. **66**: 625-628.

- Sanders L.D., Davies-Evans J., Rosen M. et al (1989) Comparison of diazepam and midazolam as IV sedation for outpatient gastroscopy. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **63**: 726-731.
- Sanders L.D., Piggott S.E., Isaac P.A. et al (1991) Reversal of benzodiazepine sedation with the antagonist flumazenil. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **66**: 445-453.
- Sanders L.D. (1991) Recovery of psychological function after anaesthesia. In: P.W. Lebowitz (ed) *International anesthesiology clinics*, Vol **29**. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, pp. 105-115.
- Sarner J.B., Levine M., Davis P.J. et al (1995) Clinical characteristics of sevoflurane in children. *Anesthesiology*. **82**: 38-46.
- Schulte-Sasse U., Hess W., Tarnow J. (1982) Haemodynamic responses to induction of anaesthesia using midazolam in cardiac surgical patients. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **54**: 1053-1057.
- Sebel P.S. and Lowdon J.D. (1989) Propofol: A new intravenous anesthetic. *Anesthesiology*. **71**: 260-277.
- Servin F., Haberer J.P., Cockshott I.D. et al (1986) Propofol pharmacokinetics of patients with cirrhosis. *Anesthesiology*. **65**: A554.
- Severinghaus J.W. and Kelleher J.F. (1992) Recent developments in pulse oximetry. *Anesthesiology*. **76**: 1018-1038.
- Shearer W.M. (1960) The evolution of premedication. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **32**: 554-562.
- Short T.G. and Chui P.T. (1991) Propofol and midazolam act synergistically in combination. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **67**: 539-545.

- Sigurdsson G.H., Lindahl S., Nordén N. (1983) Influence of premedication on the sympathetic and endocrine responses and cardiac arrhythmias during halothane anaesthesia in children undergoing adenoidectomy. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **55**: 961-968.
- Slogoff S., Keats A.S., Arlund C. (1983) On the safety of radial artery cannulation. *Anesthesiology*. **59**: 42-47.
- Sorbo S., Hudson R.J., Loomis J.C. (1984) The pharmacokinetics of thiopental in pediatric surgical patients. *Anesthesiology*. **61**: 666-670.
- Stanski D.R. and Watkins W.D. (1982) *Drug disposition in anesthesia*. New York: Grune and Stratton, pp 24-26.
- Stanski D.R., Burch P.G., Harapat S. et al (1983) The pharmacokinetics and anaesthetic potency of a thiopental isomer. *Journal of pharmaceutical sciences*. **72**: 937-940.
- Stokes D.N., Clutton-Brock T., Patil C. et al (1991) Comparison of invasive and non-invasive measurement of continuous arterial pressure using the Finapres. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **67**: 26-35.
- Sumner E. and Facer E. (1986). The paediatric patient. In: J. Stevens (ed) *Clinics in anaesthesiology*, Vol. 4. London: W.B. Saunders Company Ltd., pp. 577-600.
- Swinscow T.D.V. (1983) *Statistics at square one*. 8th ed. London: British Medical Association.
- The Hong Kong-Wechsler intelligence scale for children (1981). In: *HK-WISC Manual*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong Government Printing Department, pp. 98-101.

- The Hong Kong-Wechsler intelligence scale for children (1981a). In: *HK-WISC Manual*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong Government Printing Department, appendix D, table 21.
- Thompson C.L., Angelides K.J., Velazquez J.L. et al (1988) Distribution, mobility and function of benzodiazepine receptors on primary cultures of vertebrate neurons. In: G. Biggio and E. Costa (eds) *Chloride channels and their modulation by neurotransmitters and drugs*. New York: Raven Press, pp 135-149.
- Tiret L., Desmonts J.M., Hatton F. et al (1986). Complications associated with anaesthesia. A prospective survey in France. *Canadian anaesthetists society journal*. **33**: 336-344.
- Tiret L., Nivoche Y., Hatton F., et al (1988) Complications related to anaesthesia in infants and children. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **61**: 263-269.
- Tolia V., Brennan S., Aravind M.K. et al (1991) Pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic study of midazolam in children during esophagogastroduodenoscopy. *The journal of pediatrics*. **119**: 467-471.
- Tverskoy M., Fleishman G., Bradley E.L., (1988) Midazolam-thiopental anesthetic interaction in patients. *Anesthesia and analgesia*. **67**: 342-345.
- Tyler D.C., Woodham M., Stocks J. et al (1995) Oxygen saturation in children in the postoperative period. *Anesthesia and analgesia*. **80**: 14-19.
- Udkow G. (1978) Pediatric clinical pharmacology. *American journal of diseases of children*. **132**: 1025-1032.
- Valtonen M., Iisalo E., Kanto J. et al (1988) Comparison between propofol and thiopentone for induction of anaesthesia in children. *Anaesthesia*. **43**: 696-699.

- Valtonen M., Iisalo E., Kanto J. et al (1989) Propofol as an induction agent in children: pain on injection and pharmacokinetics. *Acta anaesthesiologica scandinavica*. **33**: 152-155.
- Van Egmond J., Hasenbos M., Crul J.F. (1985) Invasive v. non-invasive measurement of arterial pressure. *British journal of anaesthesia*. **57**: 434-444.
- Viby Mogensen, J. (1982) Clinical assessment of neuromuscular transmission. *British journal of anaesthesia* **54**: 209-223.
- Visram A.R., Jones R.D.M., Kornberg J.P. et al (1993) Movement artefact rejection using two oximeters to compare photoplethysmographic signals. *British journal of anaesthesia*. (in press).
- Vletter A.A., Burm A.G.L., Breimer L.T.M. et al (1990) High-performance liquid chromatographic assay to determine midazolam and flumazenil simultaneously in human plasma. *Journal of chromatography*. **530**: 177-185.
- Walsh J., Puig M.M., Lovitz M.A. et al (1987) Premedication abolishes the increase in plasma beta-endorphin observed in the immediate preoperative period. *Anaesthesiology*. **66**: 402-405.
- Walser A., Benjamin L.E. Sr., Flynn T., et al (1978) Quinazolines and 1,4-benzodiazepines. 84. Synthesis and reactions of imidazo (1,5-a)(1,4)-benzodiazepines. *Journal of organic chemistry*. **43**: 936-944.
- Weldon B.C., Watcha M.F. and White P.F. (1992) Oral midazolam in children: effect of time and adjunctive therapy. *Anesthesia and analgesia*. **75**: 51-55.
- Westhorpe R (1990). Paediatric day case anaesthesia. In: T.E.J. Healy (ed) *Baillière's clinical anaesthesiology*, Vol 4. London: Baillière Tindall, pp. 733-757.
- Westphal L.M., Cheng E.Y., White P.F. et al (1987) Use of midazolam infusion for sedation following cardiac surgery. *Anesthesiology*. **67**: 257-262.

- White, P.F. (1985) The role of midazolam in outpatient anesthesia. *Anaesthesiology review*. **12**: 55-60.
- White, P.F. (1986) Pharmacologic and clinical aspects of preoperative medication. *Anesthesia and analgesia*. **65**: 963-974.
- White, P.F. (1988) What's new in intravenous anesthetics? In: *Anesthesiology clinics of North America*, Vol 6. Philadelphia: W.B. Saunders Company, pp. 297-318.
- White, P.F. (1988) Clinical use of newer intravenous induction drugs. *1988 Review course lectures*. Cleveland: International anesthesia research society, pp. 105-112.
- White, P.F. (1988) Propofol: Pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics. *Seminars in anesthesia VII* (Suppl 1): 4-20.
- White, P.F. (1989) Premedication: pharmacological considerations. In: *1989 Review course lectures*. Cleveland: International anesthesia research society, pp. 94-101.
- Whitwam, J.G. (1990) Resedation. *Acta anaesthesiologica scandinavica*. **34** (Suppl. 92): 70-74.
- Wilmot G., Bhimsan N., Rocke D.A. et al (1993) Intubating conditions and haemodynamic changes following thiopentone or propofol for early tracheal intubation. *Canadian journal of anaesthesia*. **40**: 201-205.
- Wills R.J., Khoo K-C., Soni P.P. et al (1990) Increased volume of distribution prolongs midazolam half-life. *British journal of clinical pharmacology*. **29**: 269-272.
- Williams M. (1968) The measurement of memory in clinical practice. *British journal of sociology and clinical psychology*. **7** : 19-34.
- Wolff J., (1988) Flumazenil for post-operative recovery after general anaesthesia. *European journal of anaesthesiology*. **2**(suppl): 239-249.

- Wood C., Oriot D., Devictor D. et al (1987) Benzodiazepine (Bzd) poisoning: two cases of soma in children reverted by flumazenil (F) (Anexate). *Intensive care medicine*. **13**: 462.
- Yip A.S., McGuire M.A., Davis L., et al (1992) Lack of effect of midazolam on inducibility of arrhythmias at electrophysiologic study. *American journal of cardiology*. **70**: 593-597.
- Zeigler W.H., Schalch E., Leishman B. et al (1983) Comparison of the effects of intravenously administered midazolam, triazolam and their hydroxy metabolites. *British journal of clinical pharmacology*. **16**: S62-S69.
- Zuurmond W.W.A., Balk V.A., van Dis H., et al (1989) Multidimensionality of psychological recovery from anaesthesia. *Anaesthesia*. **44**: 889-892.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Presentations & Publications

Presentations:**Reversal of the hypnotic effect of midazolam in children.**

8th Asian-Australasian Congress of Anaesthesiologists

Seoul, Korea, 23-28 September, 1990.

Continuous pulse oximetry data acquisition.

6th Congress of the Western Pacific Association of Critical Care Medicine

Bangkok, Thailand, 1-4 December, 1991.

The upgraded 'FINAPRES' continuous non-invasive blood pressure monitor.

6th Congress of the Western Pacific Association of Critical Care Medicine

Bangkok, Thailand, 1-4 December, 1991.

Pharmacokinetics of flumazenil and midazolam in paediatric patients.

5th World Congress of Clinical Pharmacology and Therapeutics

Yokohama, Japan, 26-31 July, 1992.

An HPLC assay for flumazenil, midazolam and their in the plasma and urine of paediatric patients.

British Pharmacological Society Meeting

Aberdeen, Scotland, April, 1993.

Publications:

1. Jones R.D.M., Chan K., Andrew L.J. (1990). The pharmacokinetics of propofol (Diprivan) in children. *British journal of anaesthesia* 65: 661-667.
2. Jones R.D.M., Andrew L.J., Lawson A.D., Gunawardene W.M.S., Bacon-Shone J. (1991). Antagonism of the hypnotic effect of midazolam in children: A randomised, double blind study of placebo and flumazenil administered after midazolam-induced anaesthesia. *British journal of anaesthesia* 66: 660-666.
3. Jones R.D.M., Brown A.G., Roulson C.J., Smith I.D., Chan S.C. (1992). A clinical evaluation of the upgraded "Finapres" 2300e continuous non-invasive blood pressure monitor. *Anaesthesia* 47: 701-705.
4. Jones R.D.M., Lawson A.D., Gunawardene W.M.S., Roulson C.R., Brown A.G., Smith I.D. (1992). An evaluation of prolonged oximetric data acquisition. *Anaesthesia and intensive care* 20:303-307.
5. Jones R.D.M., Chan K., Roulson C.J., Brown A.G., Smith I.D., Mya G.H. (1993). The pharmacokinetics of flumazenil and midazolam in paediatric patients. *British journal of anaesthesia* 70: 286-292.
6. Jones R.D.M., Kornberg J., Roulson C.J., Visram A.R., Irwin M.G., Brown A.G., Smith I.D. (1993). The effect of cuff application on the accuracy of the Finapres 2300e. *Anaesthesia* 48: 611-615

7. **Jones R.D.M., Visram A.R., Kornberg J.P., Irwin M.G., Roulson C.R., Gunawardene W.M.S. (1994).** The effect of premedication on oxygen saturation during the post-premedication period in 20 Chinese children undergoing elective surgery. *European journal of anaesthesiology* **11**: 307-311.
8. **Chan K. and Jones R.D.M. (1993).** Simultaneous determination of flumazenil, midazolam and metabolites in human biological fluids by liquid chromatography. *Journal of chromatography* **619**: 153-160.
9. **Visram A.R., Jones R.D.M., Kornberg J.P., Irwin M.G. (1994).** Use of oximeters to investigate a method of movement artefact rejection using photoplethysmographic signals. *British journal of anaesthesia* **72**: 388-392.
10. **Jones R.D.M., Visram A.R., Kornberg J.P., Irwin M.G., Gunawardene W.M.S. (1994).** Premedication with oral midazolam in children - an assessment of psychomotor function, anxiolysis, sedation and pharmacokinetics. *Anaesthesia and intensive care* **22**: 539-544.
11. **Jones R.D.M., Chan M.M.Y., Bacon-Shone J., Mya G.H., Visram A.R., Irwin M.G. (1994).** A comparison of three induction agents in paediatric anaesthesia - cardiovascular effects and recovery. *Anaesthesia and intensive care* **22**: 545-555.

APPENDIX B

Ethics committee approval & written consent



UNIVERSITY OF HONG KONG
FACULTY OF MEDICINE
7, SASSOON ROAD, HONG KONG
TELEPHONE 8199111
TELEX: 71919 CEREB HX
Fax: 852-8559742

January 18, 1991

Dr A.D. Lawson,
Department of Anaesthesiology

Dear Dr Lawson,

EC 375-90

Thank you for your letter of 7 January, 1991.

I write to inform you that the Committee, after consideration, has approved your captioned research protocol entitled "Pulse Oximetry and Premedication in Children".

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script, appearing to read 'Y.C. Lee'.

Y.C. Lee
Secretary
Ethics Committee

c.c. Dr R.D.M. Jones, Dept of Anaesthesiology
Dr S. Gunawardene, Dept of Anaesthesiology

YCL/yl
MM1/ETHICSCIR/6



UNIVERSITY OF HONG KONG
FACULTY OF MEDICINE
7, SASSOON ROAD, HONG KONG
TELEPHONE 5-8139111
TELEX: 71919 CEREB HX
FAX: 852-5-8559742

July 11, 1989

Dr. RDM Jones
Department of Anaesthesiology

Dear Dr. Jones,

Ethics Committee - EC 321-89

In reply to your letter of June 15, 1989, I write to inform you that your captioned research protocol entitled "The Pharmacokinetics of Propofol (Diprivan) in Chinese Children" has the approval of the Committee.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script, appearing to read "Dora Yue".

Dora Yue
Secretary
Ethics Committee

DY/11

cc: Dr. LJ Andrew
Dr. K Chan



UNIVERSITY OF HONG KONG
FACULTY OF MEDICINE
7, SASSOON ROAD, HONG KONG
TELEPHONE 8199111
TELEX: 71919 CEREB HX
Fax: 852-8559742

January 28, 1991

Dr RDM Jones
Department of Anaesthesiology

Dear Dr Jones,

EC 372-90

Thank you for your letter of January 15, 1991.

I write to inform you that the Committee, after consideration, has approved your captioned research protocol entitled "The pharmacokinetics of flumazenil and midazolam in children".

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script, likely belonging to Y.C. Lee.

Y.C. LEE
Secretary
Ethics Committee

YCL/wt
WT/ethics/4



UNIVERSITY OF HONG KONG
FACULTY OF MEDICINE
7, SASSOON ROAD, HONG KONG
TELEPHONE 5-3199111
TELEX: 71919 CEREB HX

November 21, 1989

Dr. R.D.M. Jones,
Department of Anaesthesiology.

Dear Dr. Jones,

EC 330-89

Thank you for your letter dated September 26, 1989.

I write to inform you that the Ethics Committee, having considered your aforementioned reply, has approved your research protocol entitled "Reversal of Midazolam with Anexate in Paediatric Patients".

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script, likely belonging to Dora Yue.

Dora Yue
Secretary
Ethics Committee

DY/ac
MML/ETHICSIR/8



醫學院 FACULTY OF MEDICINE

院長：馬鑑可強

Dean:

Professor H.K. Ma

O.B.E., M.B., B.S., F.R.C.O.G., J.D.

副院長：梁憲孫

Associate Dean:

Dr. Raymond H.S. Liang

M.B., B.S., M.D., F.R.C.P. (S)

副院長：王登川

Associate Dean:

Dr. Y.C. Wong

B.Sc., M.Sc., Ph.D., C.Sci., M.I.P.

July 8, 1992

Dr. R.D.M. Jones,
Department of Anaesthesiology

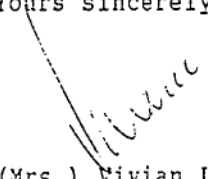
Dear Dr. Jones,

EC 433-92

Thank you for your reply dated May 20, 1992.

I write to inform you that the Committee, after consideration, has approved your aforementioned research protocol entitled "An investigation of the postoperative sedative effects of three anaesthetic induction agents in children".

Yours sincerely,


(Mrs.) Vivian Lee
Secretary
Ethics Committee

VL/cl
YC/ethics3/2

大口環兒童骨科醫院 " 氧氣分析 " 病人同意書
INFORMED CONSENT FOR OXIMETRY PATIENTS AT DCH

我是鍾斯德醫生。 香港大學麻醉科高級講師。
My name is Dr. Jones. I am a Senior Lecturer in Anaesthesia at the Hong Kong University.

我們將對閣下的小孩在手術前及手術後測量血的含氧量對睡眠的影響。
We are measuring the effect of sleep on the level of oxygen in your child's blood before
這含氧量的測量是由閃光照射在小孩腳趾的皮膚。小孩並不會
and after the operation. The oxygen level is measured by shining a light through the
有任何痛楚及損傷。這機器是手術室常用的機器之一。
skin of your child's toe. It is painless and will not hurt your child. This machine is
one which is routinely attached in the operating room.

同意書
CONSENT

本人 同意我的小孩 參與
I, hereby consent for my child to be placed in
上述研究，並對其過程完全明白。
the study described above which I fully understand. I understand that I may choose to
在以上過程中我亦可隨時取消以上研究而下會影響其治療。
my child from the study at any time without affecting treatment.

簽名 家長或監護人簽署
SIGNED Parent Signature.

證人 護士
Witnessed.....Nurse

日期
Date / / 1991

大口環兒童骨科醫院 "包皮環割術" 病人同意書
INFORMED CONSENT FOR CIRCUMCISION PATIENTS AT DCH

我是鍾斯醫生，香港大學麻醉科高級講師。

My name is Dr. Jones. I am a Senior Lecturer in Anaesthesia at the Hong Kong University.

我們將對閣下的小孩放置一條導管 24 小時，重複抽血共 7 毫升，

We would like to measure by repeated blood sampling through a venous cannula which is left in place for 24 hours, the rate of clearance from the blood of one of the drugs which is used to anaesthetise your child. A total of 7 mls of blood only will be taken. There is only minimal chance of side effects or infection occurring.

以測定其中一種麻醉藥的清除率。其副作用和發炎的機會是很少的。
in place for 24 hours, the rate of clearance from the blood of one of the drugs which is used to anaesthetise your child. A total of 7 mls of blood only will be taken. There is only minimal chance of side effects or infection occurring.

所有之麻醉程序，會全部經由本人執行及精密儀器輔助監察以

I shall be present at all the anaesthetics administered. Your child will be monitored with sophisticated monitoring equipment throughout the operation to ensure that all precautions have been carried out.

確保閣下小孩的安全。

同意書
CONSENT

本人 同意我的小孩 參與

I,hereby consent for my childto be placed in the trial described above and fully understand the procedure. I also understand that this trial will be conducted with all the precaution and safety that would be applied to any other procedure, and I may choose to withdraw my child from the trial at any time, without affecting the usual treatment.

上述檢查，亦完全明白其過程，我亦明白這項研究
the trial described above and fully understand the procedure. I also understand that this trial will be conducted with all the precaution and safety that would be applied to any other procedure, and I may choose to withdraw my child from the trial at any time, without affecting the usual treatment.

以上檢查而不會影響其治療。

家長或監護人簽署

簽名日期

大口環兒童骨科醫院

SIGNED THISDAY OF 198 AT DUCHESS OF KENT HOSPITAL Parent Signature.....

護士

日期

Nurse: Date:

大口環兒童骨科醫院 " 消除麻醉藥 " 研究同意書
INFORMED CONSENT FOR PATIENTS UNDERGOING DRUG CLEARANCE RESEARCH AT DKH

我是鍾斯醫生。 香港大學麻醉科高級講師。

My name is Dr. Jones. I am a Senior Lecturer in Anaesthesia at the Hong Kong University.

我們將對閣下的小孩放置一靜脈導管4小時,重複抽血共10毫升,

We would like to measure by repeated blood sampling through a venous cannula which is left

我現進行一項研究。其副作用和發炎的機會是很少的。

in place for 4 hours, the rate of clearance from the blood of two of the drugs which are used to anaesthetise your child. A total of 10 mls of blood only will be taken. There is only minimal chance of side effects or infection occurring.

所有之麻醉程序,會全部經由本人執行及精密儀器輔助監察以

I shall be present at all the anaesthetics administered. Your child will be monitored with sophisticated monitoring equipment throughout the operation to ensure that all precautions have been carried out.

確保閣下小孩的安全。

同意書

CONSENT

本人

同意我的小孩

參與

I.....hereby consent for my childto be placed in

上述研究,亦完全明白其過程,

我亦明白這項研究

the trial described above and fully understand the procedure. I also understand that

程序會與其他的過程一樣小心進行。在以上研究中我亦可隨時取消

this trial will be conducted with all the precaution and safety that would be applied

以上檢查而不會影響其治療。

to any other procedure, and I may choose to withdraw my child from the trial at any time, without affecting the usual treatment.

家長或監護人簽署

簽名日期

大口環兒童骨科醫院

SIGNED THISDAY OF 199 AT DUCHESS OF KENT HOSPITAL Parent Signature.....

護士

日期

Nurse:..... Date.....

大田現兒重骨科醫院"包皮環割術"病人同意書
INFORMED CONSENT FOR CIRCUMCISION PATIENTS AT DCH

[illegible]

My name is Dr. Jones. I am a Senior Lecturer in Anaesthesia at the Hong Kong University.

我們將溫度一攝用於關下兒于麻痺後的是醒蒸之效果。

We would like to measure the effectiveness of a new drug used to wake children up after

[illegible]

anaesthesia. At the end of the operation, your child will be given either saline

及會以玩具遊戲來測定知覺。

intravenously or the new drug, and the time taken to complete a single game measured.

所訂之章程相符合，而全體經手人執行及推廣時應隨時以

I shall be present at all the anaesthetics administered. Your child will be monitored with

需保護下兒子之安全。

sophisticated monitoring equipment throughout the operation to ensure that all precautions have been carried out.

同意書
CONSENT

其人 同 城 的 小 孩 也 有

I, hereby consent for my child to be placed in

上列種種研究，亦完全明白其過程，我亦明白這項研究

the trial described above and fully understand the procedure. I also understand that

相同,因此,它的過程一樣小心進行,在以上過程中,亦可隨時觀察

this trial will be conducted with all the precaution and safety that would be applied

國不圖存，則民何賴？

to any other procedure, and I may choose to withdraw my child from the trial at any time,

without affecting the usual treatment.

日
 本
 人
 員
 名
 冊
 表

大田環境芸術科 山口県立山口大学

SIGNED THIS DAY OF 198 AT DUCHESS OF KENT HOSPITAL Parent Signature.....

4180
4110

11

Nurse: Date:

大口環兒童骨科醫院 "包皮環割術" 病人同意書
INFORMED CONSENT FOR CIRCUMCISION PATIENTS AT DCH

我是鍾斯醫生。 香港大學麻醉科高級講師。

My name is Dr. Jones. I am a Senior Lecturer in Anaesthesia at the Hong Kong University.

我們將對閣下的小孩放置一靜脈導管4小時, 重複抽血共10毫升,

We would like to measure by repeated blood sampling through a venous cannula which is left in place for 4 hours, the amount of anaesthetic drug in the blood and the level of sedation in your child. A total of 10 mls of blood only will be taken. There is only minimal chance of side effects or infection occurring.

所有之麻醉程序, 會全部經由本人執行及精密儀器輔助監察以

I shall be present at all the anaesthetics administered. Your child will be monitored with sophisticated monitoring equipment throughout the operation to ensure that all precautions have been carried out.

確保閣下小孩的安全。

同意書
CONSENT

本人

同意我的小孩

參與

I.....hereby consent for my childto be placed in

上述檢查。 亦完全明白其過程。 我亦明白這項研究

the trial described above and fully understand the procedure. I also understand that

程序會與其他的過程一樣小心進行。在以上過程中我亦可隨時取消

this trial will be conducted with all the precaution and safety that would be applied

以上檢查而不會影響其治療。

to any other procedure, and I may choose to withdraw my child from the trial at any time, without affecting the usual treatment.

家長或監護人簽署

簽名日期

大口環兒童骨科醫院

SIGNED THISDAY OF 198

AT DUCHESS OF KENT HOSPITAL

Parent Signature.....

護士

日期

Nurse:.....

Date:.....

APPENDIX C

Psychometric data

C1 - C6	Conscious state & mood	215
C7 - C19	Psychomotor assessment	221

Patient number	Body weight (kg)	Age (yr)	Duration of anaesthesia (min)	Time to eye opening after flumazenil (sec)	Time to self identification after flumazenil (sec)	Dose of flumazenil administered (mg)	Mood on awakening (**)
1	18.7	6	31	240	360	0.62	D
2	16.0	5	33	120	240	0.46	D
3	20.0	6	39	120	240	0.60	D
4	20.0	6	35	240	300	0.60	C
5	32.0	8.5	43	240	300	0.82	B
6	38.5	9	40	180	180	0.75	C
7	14.0	5	31	180	420	0.56	B
8	24.0	7	58	300	360	0.56	D
9	20.0	8	31	150	270	0.53	C
10	17.0	5	31	180	180	0.35	D
11	25.0	7.5	29	60	120	0.42	B
12	19.0	5	48	240	300	0.58	D
mean	22.0	6.5	37.4	187.5	272.5	0.60	
SD	6.7	1.4	8.4	65.0	82.6	0.10	
min	14.0	5.0	29.0	60	120	0.40	
max	38.5	9.0	58.0	300	420	0.80	

APPENDIX C 1: Anaesthetic and awakening data from Jones et al (1993).

(**) A: laughing, euphoric B: happy, contented, playful C: calm, drowsy, asleep D: crying but calmed, irritable
E: severe pain, screaming, inconsolable

Patient number	Age (yr)	Weight (kg)	Premed effect (*)	Loss of eye-lash reflex (sec)	Anaes. duration (min)	Time to eye open (min)	Time to giving name (min)	Dose of drug (ml)	Observed effect (**)	Tolerance of injection (***)	Coma score at 5 min	Coma score at 10 min
1	7.5	25.0	2	85	37	4	6	6.3	1	1	4	8
4	5.5	18.0	2	14	30	6	30	6.8	1	1	4	8
7	3.5	17.0	2	79	41	15	52	7.2	3	2	4	4
8	8.5	22.0	2	84	80	9	11	10.0	2	2	3	7
9	9.0	25.0	2	33	31	8	12	10.0	2	1	5	8
10	6.0	15.1	2	49	23	14	35	10.0	3	3	4	4
14	4.5	17.3	2	123	39	6	6	5.0	1	1	7	8
16	11.5	28.5	2	72	47	2	6	7.5	1	1	7	9
18	11.0	30.5	2	18	38	5	8	7.0	1	1	6	9
20	11.0	27.0	2	106	32	5	9	8.0	1	1	9	9
23	4.5	17.5	2	90	17	9	11	10.0	2	1	3	9
24	10.0	25.5	2	32	25	7	9	9.0	2	2	2	8
25	9.0	25.0	2	83	63	15	18	10.0	3	1	4	4
26	4.5	17.8	2	120	24	9	17	10.0	2	1	4	9
29	11.0	28.0	1	52	33	16	16	10.0	3	1	2	9
31	4.5	18.5	1	64	43	10	12	10.0	2	1	8	9
33	4.0	13.5	2	71	25	32	36	10.0	4	1	3	3
34	6.5	20.0	2	61	28	13	14	10.0	3	1	3	5
38	5.0	14.3	2	117	32	7	8	6.0	2	2	5	9
39	6.0	17.8	2	32	31	16	26	10.0	3	3	2	9

APPENDIX C 2: Patient and anaesthetic data from the flumazenil group in Jones et al (1991).

(*) : 1 = agitated and crying, 2 = aware, apparently anxiety free, 3 = drowsy, 4 = asleep, responds to commands

(**)(***) : 1 = excellent, 2 = good, 3 = moderate, 4 = poor

Coma score refer *Chapter II*, page 21

Patient number	Age (yr)	weight (kg)	Premed effect (*)	Loss of eye-lash reflex (sec)	Anaes. duration (min)	Time to eye open (min)	Time to giving name (min)	Dose of drug (ml)	Observed effect (**)	Tolerance of injection (***)	Coma score at 5 min	Coma score at 10 min
2	3.0	17.5	2	87	27	31	31	10	4	1	3	3
3	8.0	23.0	2	17	25	47	47	10	4	1	1	1
5	6.0	16.5	2	52	46	33	39	10	4	1	2	2
6	7.0	23.0	2	43	33	23	49	10	4	1	1	1
11	5.8	18.0	2	20	27	76	77	10	4	1	1	1
12	5.5	19.0	2	40	26	28	27	10	4	1	2	2
13	5.5	18.5	2	40	25	57	61	10	4	1	2	2
15	12.5	44.0	2	21	29	21	22	10	4	1	2	2
17	3.8	17.0	2	118	43	25	32	10	4	1	2	2
19	8.0	24.5	2	94	69	23	43	10	4	1	0	0
21	4.5	18.5	2	24	38	22	31	10	4	1	2	2
22	11.5	30.5	2	88	26	32	34	10	4	1	3	3
27	5.6	29.0	2	27	35	30	33	10	4	1	1	2
28	8.0	26.0	2	110	45	30	30	10	4	1	1	1
30	6.8	19.7	4	60	22	47	63	10	4	1	2	2
32	7.0	21.5	2	26	19	31	60	10	4	1	1	2
35	10.5	34.0	2	72	30	46	54	10	4	1	1	3
36	5.5	15.5	2	72	25	38	43	10	4	1	1	1
37	9.0	20.5	2	51	28	66	67	10	4	1	4	4
40	5.0	18.0	4	20	33	53	59	10	4	1	2	2

APPENDIX C 3: Patient and anaesthetic data in the placebo group from Jones et al (1991).

(*) : 1 = agitated and crying, 2 = aware, apparently anxiety free, 3 = drowsy, 4 = asleep, responds to commands

(**)(***) : 1 = excellent, 2 = good, 3 = moderate, 4 = poor

Coma score refer *Chapter II*, page 21

Coma Scale									Mood Score							
Patient number	2	5	time (min)	30	60	120	240	18 hr	2	5	10	time (min)	60	120	240	
1	4	8	8	8	9	9	9	9	1	2	2	2	3	3	3	3
4	4	4	8	9	9	9	9	9	0	1	2	2	1	1	3	3
7	2	4	4	5	9	9	9	9	0	2	1	1	3	3	3	3
8	2	3	7	9	9	8	9	9	1	2	2	3	3	1	3	3
9	2	5	8	8	8	9	9	9	1	1	2	1	1	3	3	3
10	1	4	4	5	5	8	9	9	0	1	1	1	1	1	3	3
14	1	7	8	8	8	9	9	9	0	2	3	3	3	3	3	3
16	5	7	8	9	9	9	9	9	1	2	2	3	3	3	3	3
18	1	6	6	8	7	9	9	9	0	2	2	2	1	1	3	3
20	5	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	0	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
23	1	3	9	9	7	9	9	9	0	0	3	3	2	2	3	3
24	2	2	8	8	6	6	6	9	0	0	2	2	2	2	2	3
25	4	4	4	6	6	9	9	9	0	0	0	1	1	3	3	3
26	0	4	9	9	9	9	9	9	0	2	3	3	3	3	3	3
29	0	2	3	9	8	9	9	9	0	0	0	3	3	3	3	3
31	1	8	9	9	9	9	9	9	0	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
33	2	3	3	8	9	9	9	9	0	0	0	2	3	3	3	3
34	2	2	5	9	9	9	9	9	0	0	2	3	3	3	3	3
38	1	5	9	9	9	9	9	9	0	2	3	3	3	3	3	3
39	0	0	9	9	9	9	9	9	0	0	3	3	3	3	3	3

APPENDIX C 4: Coma and mood scores following flumazenil administration from Jones et al (1991). Coma and mood scale refer *Chapter II*, page 21.

Coma Scale									Mood Score							
Patient number	2	5	time (min)	30	60	120	240	18 hr	2	5	10	time (min)	60	120	240	
2	0	2	2	7	9	9	9	9	0	1	1	1	3	3	3	3
3	1	4	4	4	6	9	9	9	0	0	0	0	3	3	3	3
5	1	1	1	1	8	9	9	9	0	0	0	0	2	3	3	3
6	1	1	3	4	4	8	9	9	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	3
11	1	1	2	2	2	9	9	9	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	3
12	1	2	2	3	3	9	9	9	0	0	0	2	1	3	3	3
13	1	1	1	1	5	4	9	9	0	0	0	0	2	3	3	3
15	1	1	2	2	1	6	7	9	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	3
17	1	3	3	5	8	5	9	9	0	1	2	2	2	1	3	3
19	0	0	0	6	6	9	9	9	0	0	0	1	1	3	3	3
21	0	2	2	9	9	9	9	9	0	0	0	3	1	3	3	3
22	0	2	2	4	9	9	9	9	0	0	0	1	3	3	3	3
27	2	2	2	9	9	9	9	9	0	0	0	3	3	3	3	3
28	2	2	2	6	9	9	9	9	0	0	0	2	3	3	3	3
30	0	1	1	1	6	9	9	9	0	0	0	0	1	3	3	3
32	1	1	1	1	1	8	8	9	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	3
35	2	2	2	2	7	9	9	9	0	0	0	0	2	3	3	3
36	1	1	1	2	9	9	9	9	0	0	0	0	3	3	3	3
37	3	3	3	3	3	7	7	7	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	3
40	2	2	2	3	9	8	9	9	0	0	0	0	3	1	3	3

APPENDIX C 5: Coma scale and mood scores following placebo administration from Jones et al (1991).
Coma and mood scale refer *Chapter II*, page 21.

Mood Score										Coma Score									
Patient number	Preoperative time (min)				Postoperative time (min)					Preoperative time (min)				Postoperative time (min)					
	30	60	90	120	awake	60	120	180	240	30	60	90	120	awake	60	120	180	240	
4	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	3	9	9	9	9	6	8	9	9	7	
7	2	2	2	2	4	3	3	3	2	9	9	9	9	5	7	8	9	9	
9	2	2	3	3	5	4	2	2	2	9	9	7	7	7	7	9	9	9	
11	2	3	3	3	5	3	2	2	2	9	9	9	9	6	7	9	9	9	
12	2	2	2	2	3	3	4	4	3	9	9	9	9	7	7	9	9	9	
14	2	2	2	2	3	3	2	2	2	9	9	9	9	8	9	9	9	9	
19	3	3	3	2	3	3	2	2	2	9	9	9	9	5	8	9	9	9	
20	2	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	2	9	9	9	9	6	7	9	9	9	
23	3	3	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	8	8	9	9	4	9	9	9	9	
26	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	4	4	9	9	9	9	5	5	6	9	9	
2	2	2	2	3	3	3	2	2	3	9	9	9	9	5	6	9	9	9	
5	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	9	9	8	9	6	7	7	9	9	
6	3	3	3	3	4	3	2	2	2	8	8	8	8	5	7	9	9	9	
13	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	9	9	9	9	8	9	9	9	9	
16	2	2	2	2	3	3	2	2	2	9	9	9	9	7	7	9	9	9	
17	2	2	2	2	3	3	2	2	2	9	9	9	9	6	9	9	9	9	
18	2	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	9	9	9	7	6	9	9	8	9	
22	3	3	3	3	4	4	2	2	2	9	9	9	9	4	9	9	9	9	
25	4	3	3	4	2	3	3	2	2	9	9	9	9	6	9	6	9	9	
30	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	2	2	9	9	9	9	8	9	9	9	9	
1	2	3	3	3	4	4	2	2	2	9	9	9	9	5	7	9	9	9	
3	2	2	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	9	9	9	9	6	9	9	9	9	
8	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	2	2	9	9	9	9	7	7	9	9	9	
10	3	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	
15	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	9	9	9	9	8	9	9	9	9	
21	3	3	3	3	3	4	2	1	1	4	4	8	9	8	8	9	9	9	
24	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	8	8	8	8	4	5	9	9	9	
27	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	9	8	8	8	6	3	9	9	9	
28	3	3	2	3	3	3	2	2	2	9	9	9	9	3	3	9	9	9	
29	3	3	2	2	5	3	3	4	3	9	9	9	9	6	9	9	9	9	

APPENDIX C 6: Preoperative and postoperative mood score and coma scale data from Jones et al (1993 c & d).

Patient number	Age (yr)	Unmedicated preoperative post box toy completion attempts (sec)							
		1 st	2 nd	3 rd	4 th	5 th	6 th	7 th	fastest completion time
1	6	34	31	23	34	37	26	26	23
2	5	34	63	30	24	25	24	20	20
3	6	22	22	20	15	18	21	18	15
4	6	16	24	15	19	19	16	13	13
5	8.5	17	15	16	15	11	14	11	11
6	9	33	18	17	20	17	22	15	15
7	5	19	20	23	23	22	23	20	19
8	7	25	27	26	17	23	26	19	17
9	8	29	21	17	16	22	18	13	13
10	5	115	31	27	21	44	33	28	21
11	7.5	25	21	23	22	13	16	18	13
12	5	38	28	33	24	23	20	27	20

APPENDIX C 7: Unmedicated preoperative post box toy completion time learning curve data om Jones et al (1993).

Patient number	Pre-op Fastest CT (sec)	Post operation													
		First awake		10 min	20 min	30 min		60 min		120 min		180 min		240 min	
		Time (min)	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio
1	23	10	70	3.04		40	1.74	R		R		R		R	
2	20	20	65		3.25	R		A		A		R		37	1.85
3	15	10	30	2.00		35	2.33	R		A		30	2.00	28	1.87
4	13	20	25		1.92	34	2.62	41	3.15	R		R		38	2.92
5	11	10	35	3.18		22	2.00	20	1.82	20	1.82	14	1.27	17	1.55
6	15	10	90	6.00		55	3.67	40	2.67	32	2.13	18	1.20	19	1.27
7	19	10	48	2.53		40	2.11	A		40	2.11	R		25	1.32
8	17	R	R		R	R		R		R		R		R	
9	13	10	42	3.13		31	2.31	54	4.03	A		R		28	2.09
10	21	R	R		R	120	5.71	A		124	5.90	48	2.29	30	1.43
11	13	10	78	6.00		41	3.15	28	2.15	25	1.92	20	1.54	18	1.38
12	20	R	R		R	R		R		R		36	1.80	21	1.05
mean	16.7		48.3	3.70	2.59	34.8	2.90	16.6	2.30	21.9	2.30	15.1	1.40	23.7	1.50
SD	3.7		26.1	1.51	1.51	31.1	1.20	19.9	1.30	35.3	1.80	16.3	0.70	10.1	0.70
n			9	7	2	9		5		5		6		10	
min	11		25	2.00	1.92	22	1.74	20	1.82	20	1.82	14	1.20	17	1.05
max	23		90	6.00	3.25	120	5.71	54	4.03	124	5.90	48	2.29	38	2.92

APPENDIX C 8: Psychomotor data from Jones et al (1993). Post box toy completion time and completion time ratios.

PBT = post box toy, CT = completion time, A = asleep, R = refused the toy.

Patient number	Age (yr)	Unmedicated preoperative post box toy completion attempts (sec)							fastest completion time
		1 st	2 nd	3 rd	4 th	5 th	6 th	7 th	
1	7.5	16	14	17	14	17	14	13	13
4	5.5	32	37	28	24	27	27	25	24
7	3.5	52	50	55	63	29	51	43	29
8	8.5	29	24	18	18	14	16	15	14
9	9	13	17	16	18	16	16	14	13
10	6	35	34	35	29	27	28	31	27
14	4.5	40	33	31	38	23	27	34	23
16	11.5	18	15	13	14	14	14	12	12
18	11	14	26	17	12	15	12	14	12
20	11	18	18	10	12	20	9	13	9
23	4.5	58	42	29	42	22	20	22	20
24	10	20	15	14	14	13	13	11	11
25	9	18	15	10	9	9	8	11	8
26	4.5	40	36	30	35	29	25	29	25
29	11	24	17	18	17	20	18	15	15
31	4.5	45	47	39	27	27	31	28	27
33	4	53	70	52	78	55	60	53	52
34	6.5	40	28	37	23	21	29	19	19
38	5	88	71	44	51	47	37	34	34
39	6	17	19	21	18	24	18	21	17

APPENDIX C 9:

Unmedicated preoperative post box toy completion time learning curve data for the flumazenil group from Jones et al (1991).

Patient number	Pre-op Fastest CT (sec)	Post-operation											
		10 min		30 min		60 min		120 min		240 min		18 hr	
		CT (sec)	PBT Ratio	CT (sec)	PBT Ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio
1	13	36	2.79	28	2.17	20	1.55	19	1.47	18	1.40	13	1.01
4	24			97	4.04	83	3.46	95	3.96	33	1.37	22	0.92
7	29					66	2.28	63	2.17	58	2.00	57	1.97
8	14	69	4.93	22	1.57	25	1.79	22	1.57	18	1.29	18	1.29
9	13	45	3.46	24	1.85	19	1.46	17	1.31	25	1.92	15	1.15
10	27									15	0.56	19	0.70
14	23	56	2.43	54	2.35	32	1.39	37	1.61	33	1.43	31	1.35
16	12	37	3.08	20	1.67	21	1.75	21	1.75	15	1.25	12	1.00
18	12	47	3.92	20	1.67	21	1.75	27	2.25	17	1.42	17	1.42
20	9	28	3.11	18	2.00	25	2.78	16	1.78	15	1.67	7	0.78
23	20	50	2.50	27	1.35	32	1.60	35	1.75	20	1.00	19	0.95
24	11	34	3.09	28	2.55	27	2.45	27	2.45	33	3.00	15	1.36
25	8			47	5.87			30	3.75	26	3.25	14	1.75
26	25							50	2.0	29	1.16	34	1.36
29	15	46	3.07	27	1.73	34	2.27	30	2.0	31	2.07	18	1.20
31	27									43	1.59	30	1.11
33	52					154	2.96	48	0.92	55	1.06	184	2.00
34	19	44	2.32	39	2.05	33	1.74	24	1.26	40	2.11	44	2.32
38	34	71	2.09	58	1.71	112	3.29	47	1.38	60	1.76	38	1.12
39	17			60	3.53	58	3.41	40	2.35	42	2.47	23	1.35

APPENDIX C 10: Post box toy completion time and completion time ratio in the flumazenil group from Jones et al (1991).

Patient number	Age (yr)	Unmedicated preoperative post box toy completion attempts (sec)							fastest completion time
		1 st	2 nd	3 rd	4 th	5 th	6 th	7 th	
2	3	227	57	50	58	55	43	56	43
3	8	25	21	16	20	15	19	17	15
5	6	46	46	56	46	46	38	31	31
6	7	102	51	114	21	36	19	24	19
11	5.5	37	23	26	46	32	30	23	23
12	5.5	28	22	22	16	21	16	13	13
13	5.5	60	35	31	40	50	29	29	29
15	12	26	14	18	18	14	10	9	9
17	4	44	41	31	51	30	29	31	29
19	8	18	45	28	21	23	20	19	18
21	4.5	119	49	47	40	35	41	24	24
22	11.5	27	17	18	15	13	14	14	13
27	5.5	47	57	27	30	28	24	21	21
28	8	11	15	13	18	12	15	13	11
30	7	28	24	28	24	23	15	15	15
32	7	24	21	16	14	14	13	13	13
35	10.5	19	16	13	11	10	11	12	10
36	5.5	44	30	27	31	26	19	20	19
37	9	22	18	19	15	15	13	13	13
40	5	21	24	24	23	50	26	20	20

APPENDIX C 11:

Unmedicated preoperative post box toy completion time learning curve data for the placebo group from Jones et al (1991).

Patient number	Pre-op Fastest CT (sec)	Post-operation										
		10 min	30 min		60 min		120 min		240 min		18 hr	
		CT (sec)	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio
2	43										36	0.84
3	15				123	8.20	28	1.87	31	2.07	14	0.93
5	31				125	4.03	48	1.55	45	1.45	26	0.84
6	19								30	1.58	29	1.53
11	23				176	7.65	45	1.96	27	1.17	28	1.22
12	13				32	2.46	20	1.54	20	1.54	15	1.15
13	29								27	0.93	18	0.62
15	9						20	2.22	25	2.78	16	1.78
17	29								32	1.10	41	1.41
19	18						42	2.33	25	1.39	24	1.33
21	24		192	8.00			60	2.50	80	3.33	40	1.67
22	13				185	8.08	18	1.38	15	1.15	15	1.15
27	21		508	24.19	111	5.29	50	2.38	29	1.38	30	1.43
28	11				59	5.36	17	1.55	14	1.27	18	1.64
30	15						84	5.60	29	1.93	16	1.07
32	13				50	3.85	23	1.77	26	2.00	15	1.15
35	10				45	4.5	24	2.40	19	1.90	15	1.50
36	19				250	13.16	90	4.74	30	1.58	22	1.16
37	13				194	14.92	55	4.23	25	1.92	19	1.46
40	20				215	10.75			37	1.85	33	1.65

APPENDIX C 12: Post box toy completion time and completion time ratio in the placebo group from Jones et al (1991).

Patient number	Age (yr)	Unmedicated preoperative post box toy completion attempts (sec)							fastest completion time
		1 st	2 nd	3 rd	4 th	5 th	6 th	7 th	
1	6	28	38	48	25	25	27	22	22
2	8.5	25	18	22	19	18	16	14	14
3	10	16	13	14	14	14	13	11	11
4	5	23	21	25	23	25	22	26	21
5	11	15	16	14	13	12	12	15	12
6	9	18	18	15	13	17	18	16	13
7	9	19	23	21	15	17	18	21	15
8	7	25	21	18	20	22	18	16	16
9	5	42	32	29	28	21	22	25	21
10	6	41	24	23	25	22	23	20	20
11	8	15	13	13	14	19	12	16	12
12	4	76	38	35	41	32	39	25	25
13	6	22	19	20	20	19	16	17	16
14	6	59	53	21	18	23	22	20	18
15	12	16	14	15	14	13	14	14	13
16	6	39	24	27	25	27	28	24	24
17	5	37	38	79	36	23	20	25	20
18	6	59	39	21	26	21	21	20	20
19	9	20	18	18	14	20	16	15	14
20	10	15	13	13	13	14	12	13	12
21	5	39	32	35	30	28	23	23	23
22	9	20	18	14	15	17	15	15	14
23	11	23	23	20	19	17	19	15	15
24	8	19	17	13	15	15	16	13	13
25	8	24	18	16	15	14	13	13	13
26	4	66	61	37	48	79	63	57	37
27	8.5	26	22	19	18	19	17	16	16
28	5	33	34	30	29	30	36	38	29
29	6	38	34	30	23	21	25	22	21
30	5	61	23	26	22	34	25	22	22

APPENDIX C 13: Unmedicated preoperative post box toy completion time learning curve data for the midazolam, propofol and thiopentone groups from Jones et al (1993 c & d).

Patient number	Age Fastest (yr) CT		Preoperative data after premedication								Postoperative performance									
			30 min		60 min		90 min		120 min		Awakening		60 min		120 min		180 min		240 min	
			CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio
4	5	21	39	0.54	28	0.75	22	0.96	25	0.84	38	0.55	24	0.88	26	0.81	24	0.88	26	0.81
7	9	15	19	0.79	16	0.94	14	1.10	20	0.75	R		A		19	0.79	17	0.88	16	0.94
9	5	21	58	0.38	45	0.47	47	0.45	44	0.48	R		180	0.12	29	0.72	24	0.88	23	0.91
11	8	12	15	0.80	15	0.80	17	0.71	14	0.86	R		24	0.50	16	0.75	12	1.00	14	0.86
12	4	25	84	0.30	49	0.51	46	0.54	27	0.93	A		A		R		40	0.63	35	0.71
14	6	18	28	0.64	23	0.78	24	0.75	21	0.86	171	0.11	24	0.75	30	0.60	18	1.00	19	0.95
19	9	14	17	0.82	17	0.82	19	0.74	19	0.74	121	0.12	46	0.30	16	0.88	15	0.93	15	0.93
20	10	12	13	0.92	19	0.63			20	0.60	96	0.13	29	0.41	24	0.50	27	0.44	16	0.75
23	11	15	25	0.60	20	0.75	17	0.88	14	1.10	55	0.27	22	0.68	14	1.10	16	0.94	11	1.36
26	4	37	62	0.60	78	0.47	49	0.76	40	0.93	R		A		A		35	1.10	37	1.00
mean	7.2	19	35.8	0.64	31	0.69	28.3	0.76	24.4	0.80	99.2	0.23	49.8	0.52	21.8	0.77	22.8	0.86	21.2	0.92
SD	2.5	7.2	24	0.19	20.4	0.16	14.6	0.19	10.2	0.17	53.1	0.19	57.9	0.27	6.3	0.17	9.1	0.19	8.9	0.18
n	10	10	10	10	10	10	9	9	10	10	5	5	7	7	8	8	10	10	10	10
min	4	12	13	0.30	15	0.47	14	0.45	14	0.48	38	0.11	22	0.12	14	0.50	12	0.44	11	0.71
max	11	37	84	0.92	78	0.94	49	1.10	44	1.10	171	0.55	180	0.88	30	1.10	40	1.1	37	1.36

APPENDIX C 14: Post box completion time and completion time ratios in the midazolam group from Jones et al (1993 c & d).
PBT = post box toy, CT = completion time, A = asleep, R = refused the toy.

Patient number	Age (yr)	Fastest CT (sec)	Preoperative data after premedication								Postoperative performance									
			30 min		60 min		90 min		120 min		Awakening		60 min		120 min		180 min		240 min	
			CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio
2	8.5	14	25	0.56	19	0.74	22	0.64	19	0.74	44	0.32	25	0.56	31	0.45	21	0.67	18	0.78
5	11	12	15	0.80	19	0.63	15	0.80	18	0.67	80	0.15	17	0.71	18	0.67	15	0.8	13	0.92
6	9	13	36	0.36	23	0.57	18	0.72	18	0.72	R		19	0.68	22	0.59	17	0.77	18	0.72
13	6	16	26	0.62	25	0.64	22	0.73	21	0.76	36	0.44	17	0.94	24	0.67	20	0.80	18	0.89
16	6	24	26	0.92	29	0.83	29	0.83	32	0.75	65	0.37	35	0.69	20	1.20	19	1.26	22	1.10
17	5	20	29	0.69	39	0.51	32	0.63	34	0.59	38	0.53	27	0.74	28	0.71	23	0.87	28	0.71
18	6	20	24	0.83	22	0.91	23	0.87	35	0.57	40	0.50	24	0.83	22	0.91	24	0.83	19	1.10
22	9	14	20	0.70	22	0.64	23	0.61	18	0.78	122	0.12	42	0.33	28	0.50	24	0.58	22	0.64
25	8	13	28	0.46	22	0.59	17	0.77	21	0.62	17	0.77	11	1.18	R		10	1.30	13	1.00
30	5	22	31	0.71	30	0.73	31	0.71	25	0.88	40	0.55	25	0.88	26	0.85	23	0.96	23	0.96
mean	7.4	16.8	26	0.67	25	0.68	23.2	0.73	24.1	0.71	53.6	0.42	24.2	0.76	24.3	0.73	19.6	0.88	19.4	0.88
SD	2.0	4.3	5.8	0.17	6.2	0.12	5.9	0.09	7.0	0.10	31.4	0.20	9.1	0.23	4.2	0.23	4.5	0.23	4.6	0.16
n	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	9	9	10	10	9	9	10	10	10	10
min	5	12	15	0.36	19	0.51	15	0.61	18	0.57	17	0.12	11	0.33	18	0.45	10	0.58	13	0.64
max	11	24	36	0.92	39	0.91	32	0.87	35	0.88	122	0.77	42	1.18	31	1.2	24	1.30	28	1.10

APPENDIX C 15: Post box toy completion time and completion time ratios in the propofol group from Jones et al (1993 c & d).

PBT = post box toy, CT = completion time, R = refused the toy.

Patient number	Age fastest (yr) CT (sec)		Preoperative data after premedication								Postoperative performance									
			30 min		60 min		90 min		120 min		Awakening		60 min		120 min		180 min		240 min	
			CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio	CT (sec)	PBT ratio
1	6	22	42	0.52	48	0.46	41	0.54	43	0.51	62	0.36	A		36	0.61	24	0.92	31	0.71
3	10	11	14	0.79	14	0.79	15	0.73	15	0.73	31	0.36	20	0.55	17	0.65	14	0.79	18	0.61
8	7	16	21	0.76	22	0.73	22	0.73	27	0.59	33	0.49	20	0.80	22	0.73	19	0.84	22	0.73
10	6	20	63	0.32	32	0.63	31	0.65	24	0.83	R		30	0.67	23	0.87	35	0.57	40	0.67
15	12	13	19	0.68	17	0.77	13	1.00	16	0.81	66	0.20	25	0.52	13	1.00	15	0.87	13	1.00
21	5	23	A		A		53	0.43	45	0.51	78	0.30	70	0.33	27	0.85	26	0.89	27	0.85
24	8	13	16	0.81	14	0.93	15	0.87	16	0.81	33	0.39	30	0.43	15	0.87	15	0.87	15	0.87
27	8.5	16	23	0.70	45	0.36	29	0.55	23	0.70	34	0.47	A		20	0.80	27	0.59	17	0.94
28	5	29	30	0.97	33	0.88	34	0.85			30	0.97	A		42	0.69	34	0.85	25	1.16
29	6	21	27	0.78	24	0.88	22	0.96	19	1.11	49	0.43	27	0.78	17	1.24	26	0.81	20	1.05
mean	7.35	18.4	28.3	0.70	27.7	0.71	27.5	0.73	25.3	0.73	46.2	0.44	31.7	0.58	23.2	0.83	23.5	0.80	21.8	0.86
SD	2.3	5.6	15.5	0.19	12.7	0.20	12.8	0.19	11.4	0.19	18.2	0.22	17.4	0.18	9.4	0.19	7.6	0.12	6.3	0.18
n	10	10	9	9	9	9	10	10	9	9	9	9	7	7	10	10	10	10	10	10
min	5	11	14	0.32	14	0.36	13	0.43	15	0.51	30	0.20	20	0.33	13	0.61	14	0.57	13	0.61
max	12	29	63	0.97	48	0.93	53	1	45	1.10	78	0.97	70	0.80	42	1.24	35	0.92	31	1.16

APPENDIX C 16: Post box toy completion time and completion time ratios in the thiopentone group from Jones et al (1993 c & d).

PBT = post box toy, CT = completion time, A = asleep, R = refused the toy.

Patient number	Age (yr.m day)	Highest code score	Preoperative WISC-R performance after premedication								Postoperative WISC-R coding performance									
			30 min		60 min		90 min		120 min		Awake		60 min		120 min		180 min		240 min	
			score	scale	score	scale	score	scale	score	scale	score	scale	score	scale	score	scale	score	scale	score	scale
4	5.4,24	48	42	18	47	19	45	18	45	18	9	4	38	16	48	19	49	19	45	18
7	9.0,15	85	63	17	64	18	46	11	49	12	R	1	R	1	29	5	52	14	68	18
9	5.9,18	49	45	18	48	19	47	18	46	18	R	1	25	10	45	18	46	18	49	19
11	8.0,5	85	71	19	65	19	74	19	81	19	R	1	69	19	80	19	85	19	78	19
12	4.9,23	20	14		17		24		31		A		A		R		38		32	
14	6.2,21	48	46	18	46	18	48	18	47	18	6	3	46	18	49	19	50	19	50	19
19	9.2,13	74	48	12	65	18	53	14	61	17	4	1	23	4	52	14	77	19	77	19
20	9.11,8	74	84	19	61	15			86	19	15	1	46	10	66	17	59	15	78	19
23	11.5,4	75	38	5	67	14	71	15	71	15	14	1	41	6	67	14	80	18	66	13
26	4.5,15	45	15		15		18		17		R		A		A		19		R	
mean		57.6	46.6	15.8	49.5	17.5	47.3	16.1	53.4	17.0	9.6	1.6	41.1	10.5	54.5	15.6	59.6	17.6	60.3	18.0
SD		19.5	22.2	4.9	19.4	1.9	18.4	2.9	21.6	2.4	4.8	1.2	15.4	6.7	15.8	4.8	16.9	2.0	16.8	2.1
n		10	10	8	10	8	9	7	10	8	5	8	7	8	8	8	10	8	9	8
min		20	14	5	15	14	18	11	17	12	4	1	23	1	29	5	38	14	32	13
max		85	84	19	67	19	74	19	86	19	15	4	69	19	80	19	85	19	87	19

APPENDIX C 17: Perioperative Wechsler intelligence scale coding performance in the midazolam group from Jones et al (1993 c & d)

A = asleep, R = refused the toy.

Patient number	Age (yr.m. day)	Highest code score	Preoperative WISC-R performance after premedication								Postoperative WISC-R coding performance									
			30 min		60 min		90 min		120 min		Awake		60 min		120 min		180 min		240 min	
			score	scale	score	scale	score	scale	score	scale	score	scale	score	scale	score	scale	score	scale	score	scale
2	8.6,17	50	46	13	53	16	60	18	52	16	31	7	41	11	58	17	66	19	71	19
5	11.0,25	73	84	19	49	9	73	16	75	17	13	1	68	15	89	19	87	19	88	19
6	9.2,19	60	39	9	46	11	56	15	54	15	R	1	59	16	67	18	56	15	70	19
13	6.3,14	50	48	18	49	19	50	19	50	19	48	18	50	19	50	19	50	19	50	19
16	6.1,13	49	49	19	47	18	48	18	49	19	30	11	46	18	50	19	50	19	49	19
17	5.7,1	47	42	18	45	18	46	18	46	18	30	3	44	18	47	19	46	18	47	19
18	6.2,1	50	48	18	48	18	48	18	47	18	45	17	46	18	49	19	48	18	44	17
22	9.0,15	50	47	12	34	7	37	8	32	6	3	1	15	1	29	5	40	9	50	13
25	8.2,10	55	14	1	20	4	47	14	9	1	51	16	R	1	R	1	82	19	65	19
30	5.2,16	30	18	8	23	10	25	11	21	9	15	6	25	11	34	15	33	14	30	13
mean		51.4	43.5	13.5	41.4	13.0	49.0	15.5	43.5	13.8	29.6	8.1	43.8	12.8	52.6	15.1	55.8	17.0	56.4	17.6
SD		10.8	19.1	6.1	11.6	5.4	12.8	3.6	18.5	6.3	16.7	6.9	16.0	6.8	17.8	6.6	17.5	3.4	16.8	2.5
n		10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	9	10	9	10	9	10	10	10	10	10
min		30	14	1	20	4	25	8	9	1	3	1	15	1	29	1	33	9	30	13
max		73	84	19	53	19	73	19	75	19	51	18	68	19	89	19	87	19	88	19

APPENDIX C 18: Perioperative Wechsler intelligence scale coding performance in the propofol group from Jones et al (1993 c & d).

R = refused the toy.

Patient number	Age (yr.m. day)	Highest code score	Preoperative WISC-R performance after premedication								Postoperative WISC-R coding performance									
			30 min		60 min		90 min		120 min		Awake		60 min		120 min		180 min		240 min	
			score	scale	score	scale	score	scale	score	scale	score	scale	score	scale	score	scale	score	scale	score	scale
1	6.5,3	32	27	9	31	11	32	11	34	12	8	2	R	1	44	16	49	18	49	18
3	8.8,9	75	88	19	75	19	52	15	69	19	41	10	44	11	69	19	93	19	93	19
8	7.0,10	50	50		50		50		50		41		49		49		50		50	
10	5.7,1	48	48	19	46	18	48	19	48	19	33	14	45	18	46	18	50	19	49	19
15	12.8,12	78	52	8	62	10	68	12	75	14	29	4	77	14	73	13	85	17	81	16
21	4.11,2	41	A	1	A	1	25	11	44	19	14	6	26	12	49	19	49	19	49	19
24	7.10,11	52	32	9	44	14	44	14	48	15	14	2	35	10	40	12	51	16	51	16
27	8.8,8	48	52	15	10	1	18	3	33	7	18	3	A	1	43	11	43	11	54	15
28	5.3,19	47	49	19	48	19	47	19		1	22	10	A	1	48	19	49	19	50	19
29	5.7,14	48	45	18	48	19	50	19	49	19	28	12	47	19	49	19	47	19	48	19
mean		51.9	49.2	13.0	46.0	12.4	43.4	13.7	50.0	13.9	24.8	7.0	46.1	9.7	51.0	16.2	56.6	17.4	57.4	17.8
SD		14.2	17.1	6.5	18.2	7.4	14.6	5.2	14.0	6.4	11.5	4.6	15.8	7.1	11.0	3.4	17.3	2.7	15.9	1.6
n		10	10	9	10	9	10	9	9	8	10	9	7	9	10	9	10	9	10	9
min		32	27	1	10	1	18	3	33	7	8	2	26	1	40	11	43	11	48	15
max		78	88	19	75	19	68	19	75	19	41	14	77	19	73	19	93	19	93	19

APPENDIX C 19: Perioperative Wechsler intelligence scale coding performance in the thiopentone group from Jones et al (1993 c & d)

A = asleep, R = refuse the toy.

APPENDIX D

Pharmacodynamic data

D1 - D8	Oximetric	235
D9 - D27	Cardiorespiratory	243

Preoperative night - RAW data, F_IO₂ 0.21

Pt. No. premed (P/M)	sex	age (yr)	weight (kg)	Satmaster time discounted (hr,min,sec)	mean SpO ₂ (%)	lowest SpO ₂ (%)	Time in saturation range (% total time)					Number of episodes (>15 sec) in saturation range				
							90-95 (%)	85-90 (%)	80-85 (%)	75-80 (%)	<75 (%)	90-95 (%)	85-90 (%)	80-85 (%)	75-80 (%)	<75 (%)
1 M	M	6	15	0:03:33	99	79	3:51(1)	1:51(0)	0:46(0)	0:11(0)	-	21	6	5	1	-
2 M	F	4	16	0:07:56	100	90	2:37(0)	0:05(0)	-	-	-	14	1	-	-	-
3 M	F	1.5	11.5	0:20:43	99	69	1:55(0)	0:42(0)	0:10(0)	1:16(0)	0:13(0)	8	3	2	4	2
4 M	M	5	20	4:29:54	98	93	3:33(1)	-	-	-	-	7	-	-	-	-
5 M	M	7	17.5	0:07:51	96	61	3:19(1)	0:47(0)	3:35(1)	20:00(3)	46:22(7)	16	5	5	13	49
6 M	M	2.5	14.5	0:02:47	97	63	79:17(13)	5:39(1)	2:30(0)	0:08(0)	0:07(0)	179	15	10	3	3
7 M	M	4.5	15	0:01:23	97	73	74:00(9)	43:29(5)	26:50(3)	2:43(0)	0:09(0)	132	96	69	21	1
8 M	F	10	18	4:43:48	98	92	10:47(2)	-	-	-	-	47	-	-	-	-
9 M	M	2.5	16	0:00:18	98	91	4:31(1)	-	-	-	-	12	-	-	-	-
10 M	M	2.5	16.5	2:58:31	99	88	6:18(1)	0:25(0)	-	-	-	25	2	-	-	-
1 P	M	5.5	16	0:01:29	99	85	5:38(1)	2:06(0)	0:16(0)	-	-	22	4	2	-	-
2 P	F	2.5	10.5	0:10:19	99	92	2:46(0)	-	-	-	-	16	-	-	-	-
3 P	M	3.5	15	0:02:54	99	85	3:45(1)	0:39(0)	0:26(0)	-	-	17	2	1	-	-
4 P	M	1.8	10.8	0:05:23	99	96	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5 P	F	5.5	20	0:05:09	98	84	10:41(2)	1:02(0)	0:13(0)	-	-	46	6	1	-	-
6 P	F	7.5	30	0:05:09	99	88	5:45(1)	0:19(0)	-	-	-	25	4	-	-	-
7 P	M	2.7	14.5	0:16:35	100	94	0:26(0)	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
8 P	M	3	13.3	0:00:15	99	88	2:46(0)	0:19(0)	-	-	-	10	1	-	-	-
9 P	M	2.5	14	3:22:35	97	73	54:59(6)	18:04(2)	12:16(1)	4:44(1)	0:42(0)	126	65	35	13	4
10 P	M	3.5	19	1:09:54	98	37	21:55(3)	6:43(1)	5:33(1)	1:58(0)	14:30(2)	93	33	19	13	25

APPENDIX D 1: Patient details and preoperative raw oximetric data from Jones et al (1993b).

M = midazolam premedication P = pethidine premedication.

Preoperative night - EVALUATED data, F_IO₂ 0.21

Pt. No. premed (P/M)	Operator time discounted (hr,min,sec)	total valid time (hr,min,sec)	mean SpO ₂ (%)	lowest SpO ₂ (%)	Time in saturation range (% total time)					Number of episodes (>15 sec) in saturation range				
					90-95 (%)	85-90 (%)	80-85 (%)	75-80 (%)	<75 (%)	90-95 (%)	85-90 (%)	80-85 (%)	75-80 (%)	<75 (%)
1 M	0:05:12	10:44:23	99	85	1:09(0)	0:23(0)	0:07(0)	-	-	1	1	-	-	-
2 M	0:01:42	8:50:36	100	92	0:51(0)	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
3 M	0:00:55	10:49:19	99	92	1:37(0)	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-
4 M	4:22:56	9:53:57	98	94	5:48(1)	-	-	-	-	7	-	-	-	-
5 M	1:19:26	9:21:12	99	95	0:43(0)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6 M	1:12:50	8:47:57	98	94	33:01(6)	-	-	-	-	22	-	-	-	-
7 M	2:56:26	10:23:47	99	93	6:03(1)	-	-	-	-	10	-	-	-	-
8 M	0:06:10	8:27:54	98	92	8:10(2)	-	-	-	-	8	-	-	-	-
9 M	0:06:05	9:48:50	98	94	2:09(0)	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
10 M	0:04:38	9:04:46	99	88	3:26(1)	0:25(0)	-	-	-	6	-	-	-	-
1 P	0:06:44	12:07:32	99	92	3:37(0)	-	-	-	-	5	-	-	-	-
2 P	0:00:54	10:16:45	99	93	1:25(0)	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
3 P	0:05:22	11:30:56	99	91	2:23(0)	-	-	-	-	5	-	-	-	-
4 P	0:30:00	9:01:01	99	96	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5 P	0:11:44	10:11:11	98	94	2:25(0)	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
6 P	0:07:40	11:04:33	99	94	0:39(0)	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
7 P	0:00:52	10:24:53	100	94	0:28(0)	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
8 P	0:02:18	10:47:17	99	93	0:56(0)	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
9 P	1:26:50	14:13:24	98	73	19:26(2)	3:25(0)	1:29(0)	0:15(0)	-	17	7	4	-	-
10 P	1:22:42	11:36:23	99	91	0:55(0)	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-

APPENDIX D 2: Preoperative oximetric data are after template evaluation from Jones et al (1993b).

Post premedication - RAW data, F_IO₂ 0.21

Pt. No. premed (P/M)	Satmaster time discounted (hr,min,sec)	mean SpO ₂ (%)	lowest SpO ₂ (%)	Time in saturation range (% total time)					Number of episodes (>15 sec) in saturation range				
				90-95 (%)	85-90 (%)	80-85 (%)	75-80 (%)	<75 (%)	90-95 (%)	85-90 (%)	80-85 (%)	75-80 (%)	<75 (%)
1 M	0:00:00	99	92	1:41(1)	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	-	-
2 M	0:00:14	100	94	0:12(0)	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
3 M	0:15:53	97	64	4:31(4)	1:10(1)	3:45(4)	2:36(3)	1:00(1)	17	4	4	9	10
4 M	0:00:04	100	96	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5 M	0:07:53	95	62	27:05(23)	15:21(13)	4:09(4)	1:20(1)	0:27(0)	61	43	19	8	3
6 M	0:02:49	97	82	14:58(12)	4:28(4)	1:21(1)	-	-	39	8	5	-	-
7 M	0:01:25	98	91	4:15(4)	-	-	-	-	22	-	-	-	-
8 M	0:00:00	97	84	7:57(1)	1:15(1)	0:08(0)	-	-	22	6	2	-	-
9 M	0:02:00	98	91	1:08(1)	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-
10 M	0:00:25	99	95	0:04(0)	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
1 P	0:00:00	99	94	2:32(4)	-	-	-	-	8	-	-	-	-
2 P	0:00:00	100	96	0:56(1)	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
3 P	0:00:00	99	93	0:13(0)	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
4 P	0:02:00	99	97	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5 P	0:00:00	98	95	0:20(0)	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	-	-
6 P	0:02:41	99	90	1:44(2)	0:02(0)	-	-	-	6	1	-	-	-
7 P	0:00:07	100	96	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8 P	0:00:00	98	94	0:25(0)	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-
9 P	0:00:00	98	77	1:54(3)	0:47(1)	0:06(0)	-	-	4	3	2	-	-
10 P	0:03:16	96	69	13:26(19)	6:00(8)	3:22(5)	1:41(2)	0:16(0)	48	26	13	8	4

APPENDIX D 3: Post premedication raw oximetric data from Jones et al (1993b).

Post premedication - EVALUATED data, F_IO₂ 0.21

Pt. No. premed (P/M)	Operator time discounted (hr,min,sec)	total valid time (hr,min,sec)	mean SpO ₂ (%)	lowest SpO ₂ (%)	Time in saturation range (% total time)					Number of episodes (>15 sec) in saturation range				
					90-95 (%)	85-90 (%)	80-85 (%)	75-80 (%)	<75 (%)	90-95 (%)	85-90 (%)	80-85 (%)	75-80 (%)	<75 (%)
1 M	0:01:48	1:55:16	99	95	0:02(0)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2 M	0:00:20	1:52:58	100	96	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3 M	0:12:28	1:29:28	99	92	1:11(1)	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
4 M	0:00:00	2:14:27	100	96	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5 M	0:47:27	1:11:01	98	87	9:55(14)	1:15(2)	-	-	-	11	2	-	-	-
6 M	0:21:04	1:46:23	98	91	6:34(6)	-	-	-	-	7	-	-	-	-
7 M	0:05:18	1:36:27	99	95	1:00(1)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8 M	0:07:24	1:52:03	97	92	3:34(3)	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	-	-
9 M	0:00:00	2:10:50	98	91	1:08(1)	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
10 M	0:00:00	1:50:57	99	95	0:04(0)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1 P	1:06:02	1:01:54	97	92	2:29(4)	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-
2 P	0:13:06	1:23:45	99	94	0:56(1)	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
3 P	0:00:28	1:30:14	99	95	0:05(0)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4 P	0:30:00	1:51:07	99	97	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5 P	0:01:03	1:19:48	98	95	0:07(0)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6 P	0:02:49	1:22:28	99	96	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7 P	0:00:00	1:27:33	100	96	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8 P	0:00:14	1:27:13	98	95	0:14(0)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
9 P	0:01:38	0:56:23	98	85	1:08(2)	0:16(0)	0:02(0)	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
10 P	0:35:03	0:37:33	99	91	3:21(9)	-	-	-	-	5	-	-	-	-

APPENDIX D 4: Post premedication oximetric data after templated evaluation from Jones et al (1993b).

Recovery room - RAW data, $F_{I}O_2$ 0.28 - 0.35

Pt. No. premed (P/M)	Satmaster time discounted (hr,min,sec)	mean SpO ₂ (%)	lowest SpO ₂ (%)	Time in saturation range (% total time)					Number of episodes (>15 sec) in saturation range				
				90-95 (%)	85-90 (%)	80-85 (%)	75-80 (%)	<75 (%)	90-95 (%)	85-90 (%)	80-85 (%)	75-80 (%)	<75 (%)
1 M	0:00:29	99	82	0:26(1)	2:26(6)	0:28(1)	-	-	2	4	2	-	-
2 M	0:00:00	100	99	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3 M	0:00:00	100	98	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4 M	0:00:00	100	99	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5 M	0:01:14	100	93	0:31(2)	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-
6 M	0:00:07	96	82	2:29(25)	0:48(8)	0:06(1)	-	-	7	3	1	-	-
7 M	0:00:00	99	90	1:31(8)	0:03(0)	-	-	-	3	1	-	-	-
8 M	0:00:00	96	82	8:00(40)	0:10(1)	0:50(4)	-	-	5	1	1	-	-
9 M	0:00:00	99	91	1:10(6)	0:05(0)	-	-	-	4	1	-	-	-
10 M	0:01:13	100	88	0:11(1)	0:06(0)	0:06(0)	0:07(0)	-	1	1	1	1	-
1 P	0:00:00	99	80	0:19(1)	0:09(1)	0:15(1)	0:13(1)	-	2	1	1	1	-
2 P	0:00:00	100	98	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3 P	0:00:00	98	92	1:44(5)	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	-	-
4 P	0:00:00	98	91	0:28(8)	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
5 P	0:00:00	99	89	1:16(7)	0:07(1)	-	-	-	5	1	-	-	-
6 P	0:01:09	100	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7 P	0:00:00	100	97	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8 P	0:00:00	100	99	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
9 P	0:00:00	98	88	0:27(3)	0:29(3)	-	-	-	1	3	-	-	-
10 P	0:00:21	100	94	0:21(2)	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-

APPENDIX D 5: Recovery room raw oximetric data from Jones et al (1993b).

Recovery room - EVALUATED data, $F_{I}O_2$ 0.28 - 0.35

Pt. No. premed (P/M)	Operator time discounted (hr,min,sec)	total valid time (hr,min,sec)	mean SpO_2 (%)	lowest SpO_2 (%)	Time in saturation range (% total time)					Number of episodes (>15 sec) in saturation range				
					90-95 (%)	85-90 (%)	80-85 (%)	75-80 (%)	<75 (%)	90-95 (%)	85-90 (%)	80-85 (%)	75-80 (%)	<75 (%)
1 M	0:00:10	0:37:51	99	80	0:18(1)	2:26(6)	0:49(2)	0:01(0)	-	1	2	1	-	-
2 M	0:00:00	0:11:54	100	99	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3 M	0:00:00	0:41:31	100	98	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4 M	0:00:00	0:14:14	100	99	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5 M	0:03:52	0:29:52	100	98	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6 M	0:03:58	0:06:06	97	82	0:12(3)	-	0:02(1)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7 M	0:02:32	0:15:26	99	96	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8 M	0:02:56	0:16:57	97	85	6:39(39)	-	0:01(0)	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
9 M	0:32:57	0:17:45	99	95	0:50(5)	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
10 M	0:25:31	0:23:05	100	97	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1 P	0:00:00	0:21:50	99	80	0:19(1)	0:09(1)	0:15(1)	0:13(1)	-	1	1	1	1	-
2 P	0:00:00	0:05:17	100	98	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3 P	0:02:15	0:30:31	98	92	0:25(1)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4 P	0:01:00	0:04:32	99	97	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5 P	0:01:40	0:16:48	99	95	0:09(1)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6 P	0:09:07	0:09:31	100	98	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7 P	0:12:34	0:20:30	100	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8 P	0:00:00	0:21:05	100	99	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
9 P	0:00:58	0:12:54	99	96	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10 P	0:00:49	0:21:59	100	97	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

APPENDIX D 6: Recovery room oximetric data after template evaluation from Jones et al (1993b).

Post operative ward - RAW data, $F_{I}O_2$ 0.21

Pt. No. premed (P/M)	Satmaster time discounted (hr,min,sec)	mean SpO ₂ (%)	lowest SpO ₂ (%)	Time in saturation range (% total time)					Number of episodes (>15 sec) in saturation range				
				90-95 (%)	85-90 (%)	80-85 (%)	75-80 (%)	<75 (%)	90-95 (%)	85-90 (%)	80-85 (%)	75-80 (%)	<75 (%)
1 M	0:00:05	99	97	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2 M	0:04:35	99	85	8:26(2)	1:19(0)	0:02(0)	-	-	31	4	-	-	-
3 M	0:00:05	98	79	24:54(4)	2:54(1)	0:17(0)	0:12(0)	-	57	11	1	1	-
4 M	0:00:11	99	87	6:11(1)	1:28(0)	-	-	-	18	1	-	-	-
5 M	0:00:45	99	88	2:26(1)	0:12(0)	-	-	-	12	1	-	-	-
6 M	0:42:06	97	81	28:19(12)	4:44(2)	1:43(1)	-	-	14	2	-	-	-
7 M	0:00:00	98	92	6:03(2)	-	-	-	-	14	-	-	-	-
8 M	0:00:00	97	89	13:05(4)	0:41(0)	-	-	-	38	4	-	-	-
9 M	0:00:00	98	95	0:25(0)	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-
10 M	0:00:00	98	88	2:35(1)	0:08(0)	-	-	-	12	1	-	-	-
1 P	0:00:58	98	78	11:31(3)	1:10(0)	0:19(0)	0:07(0)	-	44	7	1	1	-
2 P	0:22:17	99	92	1:17(0)	-	-	-	-	8	-	-	-	-
3 P	0:01:14	98	93	5:51(2)	-	-	-	-	18	-	-	-	-
4 P	0:07:54	100	88	15:57(3)	4:09(1)	2:18(0)	0:30(0)	-	54	18	5	4	-
5 P	0:00:00	98	96	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6 P	0:05:46	99	84	55:32(15)	20:29(4)	6:24(1)	0:41(0)	0:09(0)	168	52	22	3	1
7 P	0:00:04	99	80	1:19(0)	0:12(0)	0:06(0)	0:06(0)	-	6	2	1	1	-
8 P	0:00:00	99	84	7:07(1)	0:37(0)	0:05(0)	-	-	20	5	1	-	-
9 P	0:00:00	98	90	1:11(0)	0:03(0)	-	-	-	4	1	-	-	-
10 P	0:11:06	98	72	8:25(2)	1:17(1)	0:38(0)	0:19(0)	0:07(0)	25	2	1	1	1

APPENDIX D 7: General postoperative ward raw oximetric data from Jones et al (1993b).

Post operative ward - EVALUATED data, F_IO₂ 0.21

Pt. No. premed (P/M)	Operator time discounted (hr,min,sec)	total valid time (hr,min,sec)	mean SpO ₂ (%)	lowest SpO ₂ (%)	Time in saturation range (% total time)					Number of episodes (>15 sec) in saturation range				
					90-95 (%)	85-90 (%)	80-85 (%)	75-80 (%)	<75 (%)	90-95 (%)	85-90 (%)	80-85 (%)	75-80 (%)	<75 (%)
1 M	0:01:42	8:34:06	99	97	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2 M	0:05:02	5:39:38	100	87	3:20(1)	0:52(0)	-	-	-	5	1	-	-	-
3 M	0:13:14	9:12:20	98	79	12:30(2)	2:13(0)	0:17(0)	0:12(0)	-	17	4	1	-	-
4 M	0:06:08	6:51:01	99	91	1:37(0)	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
5 M	0:08:04	7:15:48	99	95	0:22(0)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6 M	0:36:30	3:24:17	98	87	5:33(3)	0:12(0)	-	-	-	6	-	-	-	-
7 M	0:18:16	3:48:39	98	95	0:19(0)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8 M	0:00:34	5:10:40	97	89	12:35(4)	0:41(0)	-	-	-	16	-	-	-	-
9 M	0:00:00	7:17:28	98	95	0:25(0)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10 M	0:00:00	7:59:34	98	88	2:35(1)	0:08(0)	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-
1 P	0:10:08	5:34:18	98	90	6:16(2)	0:29(0)	-	-	-	5	1	-	-	-
2 P	0:00:52	6:45:42	99	93	0:53(0)	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
3 P	0:04:36	7:12:13	98	93	3:39(1)	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	-	-
4 P	0:30:46	7:35:29	100	94	1:50(0)	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
5 P	0:00:00	7:51:10	98	96	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6 P	1:27:12	6:26:00	98	90	15:43(4)	0:08(0)	-	-	-	15	-	-	-	-
7 P	0:01:44	7:16:48	99	95	0:20(0)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8 P	0:03:12	8:51:32	99	84	5:07(1)	0:11(0)	0:05(0)	-	-	8	1	-	-	-
9 P	0:00:52	5:23:54	98	95	0:24(0)	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
10 P	0:12:54	7:33:06	98	94	2:10(0)	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-

APPENDIX D 8: General ward oximetric data after template evaluation from Jones et al (1993b).

Patient number	Body weight (kg)	Age (yr)	Mood on arrival in theatre (*)	Heart rate (beats min ⁻¹) after midazolam induction (min)								
				0	2	4	6	8	10	15	20	30
1	18.70	6.0	B	77	106	111	116	114	113	115	113	104
2	16.00	5.0	B	154	110	126	107	108	110	108	107	101
3	20.00	6.0	B	92	107	138	129	120	120	147	141	122
4	20.00	6.0	B	99	117	129	122	128	132	132	99	88
5	32.00	8.5	B	90	93	148	130	100	96	99	102	79
6	38.50	9.0	B	124	93	134	112	108	111	104	113	92
7	14.00	5.0	B	122	131	156	125	110	108	129	104	101
8	24.00	7.0	B	97	120	113	107	102	96	84	76	79
9	20.00	8.0	B	113	110	115	113	107	108	105	105	104
10	17.00	5.0	B	109	94	88	79	81	72	77	75	88
11	25.00	7.5	B	81	94	109	100	98	101	105	78	87
12	19.00	5.0	B	79	112	119	118	111	109	112	101	101

APPENDIX D 9: Heart rate data after midazolam induction from Jones et al (1993).

(*) A: agitated, crying B: aware, apparently anxiety free C: drowsy D: asleep, responds to commands

Patient number	Systolic Blood Pressure (mm Hg) after induction (min)									Diastolic Blood Pressure (mm Hg) after induction (min)								
	0	2	4	6	8	10	15	20	30	0	2	4	6	8	10	15	20	30
1	109	102	115	99	98	76	109	107	101	47	57	48	37	36	48	43	39	39
2	127	141	109	100	96	110	102	70	95	80	100	72	57	57	68	57	59	54
3	105	111	146	117	109	104	127	136	121	62	57	70	54	54	50	58	59	58
4	103	91	108	99	87	88	108	109	96	68	54	69	56	60	62	95	69	68
5	60	94	168	117	98	92	107	116	95	46	43	86	55	41	45	38	63	37
6	105	148	126	109	92	68	97	115	97	64	104	53	47	48	51	53	68	51
7	107	94	117	115	94	93	102	96	91	52	41	77	49	46	46	53	44	50
8	105	128	120	101	93	78	87	81	86	53	77	55	45	45	52	47	44	42
9	82	112	121	111	106	103	119	106	104	47	72	61	49	47	48	57	55	45
10	96	98	90	88	85	81	88	83	87	61	70	57	53	49	40	51	48	52
11	119	150	125	103	88	91	111	90	117	64	78	74	51	46	61	66	65	78
12	120	115	126	110	101	93	102	99	99	58	52	72	48	40	42	48	41	44

APPENDIX D 10: Systolic and diastolic blood pressure data following midazolam induction from Jones et al (1993).

Patient number	Heart rate data (beats min ⁻¹) after flumazenil (min)									Respiratory rate data (breaths min ⁻¹) after flumazenil (min)								
	0	2	4	6	8	10	15	20	30	0	2	4	6	8	10	15	20	30
1	81	113	113	108	93	90	72	75	82	24	24	24	24	24	20	20		
2	97	114	114	124	106	78	92	92		26	25	25	25	25	25	25		
3	105	110	98							14	24							
4	88	104	90	65	68	66				33	25	25	20					
5	94	70	75	83	78					20	25	25	25					
6	92	94	75	74	83	111	100	92		11	20	20	20	22	22	20		
7	68	105	78	82	79	72				12	22	20	15					
8	79	79	79	79	79	79	82	79	77	9	9	9	9	9	9	18	18	
9	111	111	111	101	92	83	80	86	79	24	24	26	26	26	26	26		
10	108	104	104	133						24	24	24	24	24				
11	72	83	71	83	74	85	105	78	107	9	15	15	15					
12	75	55	65	86	60	65	67	67	67	14	14	14	24	24	24			

APPENDIX D 11: Heart rate and respiratory rate data during recovery room administration of flumazenil from Jones et al (1993).

Patient number	Systolic blood pressure (mm Hg) after flumazenil (min)										Diastolic blood pressure (mm Hg) after flumazenil (min)										Mean change from baseline values		
	0	2	4	6	8	10	15	20	30		0	2	4	6	8	10	15	20	30		heart rate	systolic press.	resp. rate
1	92	103	120	126	106	112	106	114	99		36	46	64	50	54	60	54	80	52		32	11	0.0
2	104	96	96	96	94	94	106	106			61	61	49	49	45	45	46	47			17	-8	-1
3	119	136	136								61	75	62								5	17	10
4	96	149	132	112	120	107					68	79	51	61	71	55					16	53	-8
5	106	113	125	100	118						78	62	81	79	73						-24	7	5
6	114	128	128	115	111	120	117	117			51	62	56	78	62	69	94	68			2	14	9
7	91	89	91	91	129	127	132	114			50	42	52	50	64	54	46	57			37	38	10
8	86	90	101								42	49	48								3	4	9
9	111	111	108	106	109	106	122	123			54	49	49	45	43	43	53	60			-10	-3	2
10	94	98	98	111							56	40	48	74							-4	4	0
11	123	129	131	114	128	116	107	136	95		56	64	59	52	56	71	67	47	63		11	6	6
12	114	114	114	109	117	112	125				43	47	43	66	47	44	45				11	-5	10

APPENDIX D 12: Blood pressure data following flumazenil administration from Jones et al (1993).

Patient number	Systolic blood pressure (mm Hg) during induction (min)						Diastolic blood pressure (mm Hg) during induction (min)						Heart rate (beats min ⁻¹) during induction (min)					
	pre-induction	1	2	5	15	30	pre-induction	1	2	5	15	30	pre-induction	1	2	5	15	30
1	102	110	94	86	102	94	77	68	60	59	65	55	107	104	106	122	109	100
4	110	104	94	81	95		81	64	58	60	60		83	118	95	99	99	103
7	142	108	130	98	119	124	89	77	80	69	67	65	111	123	124	87	99	107
8	114	110	95	101	101	102	87	57	54	64	61	55	114	95	92	105	91	98
9	107	97	87	92	93	91	79	65	49	51	54	56	127	107	104	113	95	100
10	89	88	83	89	99		66	58	52	59	66		103	115	118	132	125	
14	105	102	93	87	88	87	60	72	55	54	55	52	107	126	109	112	106	106
16	110	108	107	95	91		72	78	70	54	61		81	90	112	89	87	
18	121	110	96	84	104	95	77	72	50	43	57	55	131	124	109	101	122	106
20	111	111	106	85	94	90	88	88	71	57	59	49	106	124	115	104	108	104
23	100	110	98	89	98		71	82	60	53	60		95	118	115	87	109	
24	96	92	92	73	106		72	65	65	49	68		98	114	123	95	125	
25	130	121	84	89	113	104	89	74	82	35	60	92	65	74	77	56	124	115
26	111	109	102	92	90		65	65	67	60	60		79	84	93	104	95	
29	116	111	105	77	100	96	56	65	50	38	49	49	125	123	122	74	84	88
31	119	119	99	67	93	94	65	64	56	37	49	47	176	107	121	93	100	103
33	124	94	125	92	88		85	61	91	50	47		148	134	141	116	120	
34	109	96	99	94	108	112	81	67	70	56	67	69	92	114	100	90	102	108
38	156	117	106	107	95	104	82	55	61	55	41	41	140	194	138	142	120	133
39	101	102	100	116	102	100	51	68	58	70	55	58	91	94	119	120	102	113

APPENDIX D 13: Induction haemodynamic data in the flumazenil group from Jones et al (1991).

Patient number	Respiratory rate (breaths min ⁻¹) during induction (min)						End tidal carbon dioxide (mm Hg) during induction						Maximum change in parameters during induction			mean E _T CO ₂
	pre-induction	1	2	5	15	30	pre-induction	1	2	5	15	30	RR	SBP	HR	
1	35	26	26	35	31	27			49	44	53	56	0	8	15	50
4	30		34	32	35	30		60	60	65	63	57	5	-29	35	62
7	28	44	44	57	55	60			50	49	59	56	32	-44	12	54
8	34	29	41	47	53	44			42	46	52	51	19	-19	23	48
9		32	32	41	42	39		48	50	48	54	37		-20	-27	47
10			29	58	49				43	47	66			10	29	52
14		20	28	32	35	32			47	47	54	56		18	19	51
16	24	18	20	20	44					46	48		20	19	31	47
18	24	32	29	29	36	35		47	52	54	53	70	12	-37	30	46
20				19	36	28				48	59	58		26	18	55
23	28		>60	>60	>60	>60			45	32	60		32	10	23	46
24	24		40	42	57				54	50	57		33	10	27	54
25				37	38	40				52	63	68		46	59	61
26			39	46	34				45	49	49			21	25	48
29	28		24	31	30	34			30	42	52	56	6	-20	-51	45
31		39	39	24	35	37		46	46	46	51	49			-83	48
33			43	21	39				38	39	47			1	-32	41
34	24		32	37	35	31			47	53	58	55	13	3	22	53
38	36	29		33	46	49			47	37	43	46	13	-61	54	46
39	24	23	42	64	49	43		44	44	39	48	63	-40	15	-72	44

APPENDIX D 14: Induction respiratory data in the flumazenil group from Jones et al (1991).

RR = respiratory rate (breaths min⁻¹); SBP = systolic blood pressure (mm Hg); HR = heart rate (beats min⁻¹); E_TCO₂ = end-tidal carbon dioxide tension (mm Hg)

Patient number	Respiratory rate (breaths min ⁻¹) after flumazenil (min)						Heart rate (beats min ⁻¹) after flumazenil (min)						Maximum change in parameters after flumazenil		
	pre-flumazenil	2	5	10	30	60	pre-flumazenil	2	5	10	30	60	RR	SBP	HR
1	20			16	18	18	93	77	104	90	83		-4	20	11
4							97	92	94	107	98	100		23	10
7							105	83	147	101	85	90		24	42
8							86	66	75	60	84	82		20	4
9							97	84	78	84	75	73		15	-25
10							138	125	120	94	113	120		7	-44
14	22			24	22		81	65	97	96	97	74		4	66
16				24	24	22	72	65	64	70	64	60		20	8
18	18		24	24	24	24	94	113	113	102	108	108		25	16
20	18	20	20	24	24	20	94	111	78	78	86	102	2	22	17
23							102	89	81	125	104	100		11	21
24	36			30			93	79	84	86	84	88		13	14
25							111	136	136	122	96	92		-7	25
26							92	68	150	72		108		13	58
29	28			24	20		82	65	65	64	94	80		-3	-17
31							98	88	61					35	-37
33	19	19	19	24	18	22	113	113	98	94	98	102	0	0	-5
34	24	20	20	24	20	18	97	82	73	100	89	90	-4	7	-24
38	24	24	24				121	122	122	163			0	-11	0
39	32						108	88	83					-9	-25

APPENDIX D 15: Patient cardio-respiratory data following flumazenil administration from Jones et al (1991).

RR = respiratory rate (breaths min⁻¹) SBP = systolic blood pressure (mm Hg) HR = heart rate (beats min⁻¹)

Patient number	Systolic blood pressure (mm Hg) after flumazenil (min)						Diastolic blood pressure (mm Hg) after flumazenil (min)					
	pre-flumazenil	2	5	10	30	60	pre-flumazenil	2	5	10	30	60
1	88	82	108	99	101		81	59	57	54	59	
4	98	94	99	107	121	110	65	65	76	82	84	80
7	122	138	146	146	135	120	59	63	81	87	73	70
8	103	108	123	114	110	110	65	67	90	69	70	70
9	95	90	96	106	100	103	54	52	63	63	58	54
10	88	84	95	92	85	90	51	56	68	76	68	70
14	81	74	85	96	96	98	52	35	47	58	58	41
16	110	111	130	124	116	100	73	82	73	92	82	60
18	87	93	112	113	120	120	44	54	52	76	90	90
20	87	109	94	94	108	110	51	71	59	59	62	72
23	93	82	88	101	110	110	43	46	50	59	70	70
24	95	82	86	106	110	104	49	47	58	76	86	76
25	101	104	94	111			44	48	60			
26	96	95	109	107		100	54	54	71	69		70
29	82	79	79	74	100	110	43	35	35	38	56	60
31	81	90	125				48	47	83			
33	83	83	83	81	79		35	35	38	32	41	
34	102	101	109	130	113	99	58	58	58	88	77	78
38	91	88	88	82			41	41	41	68		
39	100	91	96				49	47	49			

APPENDIX D 16: Haemodynamic data after flumazenil administration from Jones et al (1991).

Patient number	Systolic blood pressure (mm Hg) during induction (min)						Diastolic blood pressure (mm Hg) during induction (min)						Heart rate (beats min ⁻¹) during induction (min)					
	pre-induction	1	2	5	15	30	pre-induction	1	2	5	15	30	pre-induction	1	2	5	15	30
2	93	108	95	83	98		41	41	40	35	41		133	133	133	129	123	
3	108	105	95	94	116		60	60	45	41	48		97	104	91	117	133	
5	115	134	126	120	122	93	67	113	90	97	62	48	121	116	147	149	116	126
6	100	92	89	79	109	107	65	67	60	36	66	53	96	118	120	124	111	116
11	97	91	83	72	87		58	61	55	44	58		101	93	103	92	109	
12	102	109	129	71	96		65	79	98	37	60		93	86	100	91	97	
13	108	100	98	73	91		68	64	69	43	59		98	101	113	98	104	
15	112	112	87	82	99	87	56	48	44	46	49	47	89	88	84	86	82	72
17	102	109	101	91	92	91	77	77	57	50	65	59	136	148	110	122	125	130
19	105	105	105	105	98	101	79	79	79	79	58	64	110	150	140	102	120	116
21	104	90	90	90	90	93	66	65	54	54	58	52	114	103	130	111	124	141
22	113	127	121	121	103		68	66	70	70	67		80	96	89	78	81	
27	115	112	95	94	98	94	76	74	59	55	46	46	109	105	108	96	105	101
28	104	110	103	98	95	100	69	71	64	53	48	45	97	121	124	103	105	107
30	93	94	90	84	95		57	65	53	55	60		94	90	98	117	115	
32	106	111	105	94	91		63	71	72	53	41		89	113	103	97	103	
35	129	109	106	103	114		75	73	49	49	63		107	149	108	121	139	
36	100	98	105	93	96		65	72	64	56	53		85	102	119	89	108	
37	104	90	85	99	96		57	37	40	52	56		100	84	74	94	99	
40	130	122	113	82	111	113	91	80	47	49	69	63	141	137	141	126	125	129

APPENDIX D 17: Induction haemodynamic data in the placebo group from Jones et al (1991).

Patient number	Respiratory rate (breaths min ⁻¹) during induction (min)						End-tidal carbon dioxide tension (mm Hg) during induction (min)						Maximum change in parameters during induction			mean E _T CO ₂
	pre-induction	1	2	5	15	30	pre-induction	1	2	5	15	30	RR	SBP	HR	
2			48	41	43				57	50	59		15	-10		55
3	24	32	28	28	40			48	50	52	50		16	8	36	50
5		28	33	33	43	41		49	47	48	69	72		19	28	59
6	30	39	35	37	48	47		40	40	39	63	64	18	7	28	49
11	24	32	44	53	49				50	54	63		29	-25	8	56
12			29	38	40				55	57	64			27	4	59
13		24	22	32	44		44	45	50	61				35	15	50
15	24	28	34	41	51				42	49	51		27	30	17	47
17	30		39	48	44	42			43	48	54	59	18	7	12	51
19	20			55	55	60				49	45	57	40		40	50
21	24		29	33	34	45			45	58	63	73	21	-14	17	60
22	24		30	30	48				51	53	52		24	10	16	52
27	24		30	36	35	32			51	47	51	54	12	21	13	51
28			42	35	32	32			52	56	70	66		6	27	61
30			27	40	35				45	44	64			2	23	51
32	28			26	26					54	57		-2	5	24	56
35	28		30	38	40				46	49	51		12	-26	42	49
36	28		31	35	48				39	41	47		20	5	34	42
37	32	27	28	28	35		41	45	46	55			3	19	-26	45
40	28	37	43	42	40	32	37	39	47	55	52		15	-48	-16	46

APPENDIX D 18: Induction respiratory data in the placebo group from Jones et al (1991).

RR = respiratory rate (breaths min⁻¹); SBP = systolic blood pressure (mm Hg); HR = heart rate (beats min⁻¹); E_TCO₂ = end-tidal carbon dioxide tension (mm Hg)

Patient number	Respiratory rate (breaths min ⁻¹) after placebo (min)						Heart rate (beats min ⁻¹) after placebo (min)						Maximum change in parameters after placebo administration		
	pre-placebo	2	5	10	30	60	pre-placebo	2	5	10	30	60	RR	SBP	HR
2			35	36	40		115	111	110	108	102			4	-13
3	32	34	34		28		101	92	91	88	87		2	-11	-14
5							129	115	111	108	96	117		13	-45
6							117	125	93	85	78	80		31	-43
11							101	97	101	100	80	81		4	-4
12							92	101	89	86	87	68		11	9
13							101	96	87	76	68	62		-7	-14
15	28	28	28	28	26	24	63	66	65	74	83	78	0	6	3
17		32	22	26	24	24	125	115	147	101	101	124		24	22
19	36	36	36	26	26	24	122	122	122	120	120	108	0	1	0
21	24	24	24	28		28	117	117	117	104	147	120	0		0
22	28	24	24	24	24	24	73	79	79	70	72	70	-4	3	6
27			24	24		22	102	93	91	91	127	97		-4	-11
28	24	24	24	24			94	90		74	117	78	0	2	-4
30	26				20		115	104	98	91	75	75		-4	17
32	26	26				24	93	87	90	78	76	77	0	-10	-6
35	20	20	20	24	24	22	105	105	97	96	88	75	0	-9	-8
36							113	117	113	110	100			-1	4
37			24	24	22	24	94	94	96	84	82	58		-7	2
40							129	120	128	120	102			4	-9

APPENDIX D 19: Cardio-respiratory data after placebo administration from Jones et al (1991).

RR = respiratory rate (breaths min⁻¹) SBP = systolic blood pressure (mm Hg) HR = heart rate (beats min⁻¹)

Patient number	Systolic blood pressure (mm Hg) after placebo (min)						Diastolic blood pressure (mm Hg) after placebo (min)					
	pre-placebo	2	5	10	30	60	pre-placebo	2	5	10	30	60
2	77	80	81	79	80		32	30	44	43	50	
3	87	83	78	80	76		48	35	39	42	41	
5	93	87	87	87	86	104	53	44	44	46	48	70
6	86	117	105	103	103	95	35	47	51	49	53	64
11	68	66	72	73	71	70	33	30	39	38	36	37
12	93	98	104	83	109	88	48	59	59	61	66	44
12	82	79	75	67	75	55	47	42	39	41	37	45
15	93	95	99	98	101	88	43	47	43	41	49	42
17	89	87	113	109	98	100	62	47	58	62	59	60
19	81	82	81	85	125	120	31	33	35	35	71	76
21		92	92	97	53	90		51	51	62	46	50
22	93	96	96	90	110	110	40	42	42	46	60	70
27	87	81	83	83	142	112	51	42	41	41	63	72
28	85	87		104	100	106	43	46		49	51	43
30	85	81	85	88	84	85	49	40	47	53	46	50
32	81	77	81	86	85	112	31	33	35	58	33	69
35	101	101	92	99	85	117	51	51	49	46	43	68
36	83	82	82	76	82		38	39	37	41	42	
37	88	88	81	87	84	85	47	47	54	55	58	58
40	98	102	98	102	102			44	45	45	45	45

APPENDIX D 20: Haemodynamic data during placebo administration from Jones et al (1991).

Patient number	Induction agent	Time after induction (min)										Maximum change in first 6 min	
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		10
4	M	128	109	106	105	106	106	90	110	115	115	121	-38
7	M	105		115	107	85	89	92	111	114	106	106	-20
9	M	123	115	109	97	97	92	99	100	95	93	93	-31
11	M	105	105	105	66	89	91	89	89	89	92	95	-39
12	M	108	105	98	89	87	81		72	95	97	92	-27
14	M	103	108	113	96	78	87	87	107	98	105	105	-25
19	M	110		88	87	87	83	81				103	-29
20	M	118	104	95	93	85	78	90	108	97	101	114	-40
23	M	110	116	106	93	95	112	98	94	96	103	95	-17
26	M	95	88	95	110	93	90	97	91	111	123	105	15
2	P	105	132	108	101	91	84	86	92	88	86	95	27
5	P	119	88	83	82	82	84	90	93	88	87	84	-37
6	P	127	90	88	91	89	85	92		91	81	82	-42
13	P	94	99	93	82	84	92	76	87	91	93	97	-25
16	P	104	86	78	71		68		83	84	86	84	-36
17	P	94		81	80	75	74	79	89	88	89	91	-20
18	P	103	103	93	78	78	78	85	85				-25
22	P	104	77	68	75	84	79	79	88	100	88	92	-36
25	P	99	90	86	83	84	85	86		89	98	96	-16
30	P	114	115	98	81	82	89	67	86	94	93	106	-47
1	T	94	109	111	120	108	103	105	103	92	90	92	26
3	T	99	99	99	86		74	93	83	82	84	84	-25
8	T	119	112	106	102	95	95	104	116	103	100	99	-24
10	T	133	107	129	120	88	85	108	114	119	119	120	-48
15	T	142	137		116	103	86	101		107	89	125	-56
21	T	113	100	97	100	96	69	85	91	91	85	95	-44
24	T	108	87	86	72	76	79		79		79	89	-36
27	T	115	116	106	103	101	99	100	101	88	102	99	-16
28	T	103	107	98	95	84	91	74	73	79	122	91	-29
29	T	136	109	93	84	85	84	84	77	77	88	86	-52

APPENDIX D 21: Systolic blood pressure data (mm Hg) measured using the Cardiacap CM104™ during induction of anaesthesia with midazolam (M), propofol (P) and thiopentone (T) from Jones et al (1993d).

Patient number	Induction agent	0	1	2	3	Time after induction (min)	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Maximum change in first 6 min
4	M	90	60	56	57	57	56	46	63	65	62	71		-44
7	M	84		75	62	49	52	56	80	71	65	65		-35
9	M	79	63	67	57	52	63	63	58	57	53	54		-27
11	M	66	75	62	36	58	48	53	48	51	51	55		-30
12	M	75	62	64	53	53	46		44	56	61	56		-29
14	M	49	45	45	37	39	39	39	46	36	42	42		-12
19	M	54		49	43	48	34	36				63		-20
20	M	74	57	56	51	49	37	56	61	57	63	75		-37
23	M	66	84	73	61	59	74	65	60	65	61	60		18
26	M	36	45	47	55	45	45	40	44	46	55	43		19
2	P	60	80	70	58	46	46	47	51	48	44	51		20
5	P	61	57	47	49	50	52	60	59	56	54	51		-14
6	P	73	42	37	36	38	37	42		37	36	37		-37
13	P	55	45	42	40	39	38	53	42	43	39	43		-17
16	P	70	41	38	41		37		48	48	47	48		-33
17	P	55		45	42	43	38	46	54	40	52	52		-17
18	P	63	63	49	45	45	45	45	45					-18
22	P	56	46	46	43	43	44	44	59	57	56	58		-13
25	P	59	51	46	44	48	44	47		49	56	56		-15
30	P	67	61	51	42	45	49	39	58	56	54	69		-28
1	T	55	61	60	80	65	56	64	62	49	51	53		25
3	T	59	60	65	55		39	48	50	47	48	51		-20
8	T	81	72	67	61	54	55	93	100	62	60	61		-27
10	T	78	41	72	63	45	38	58	52	54	52	57		-40
15	T	58	52		47	37	47	43		50	50	42		-21
21	T	62	54	56	47	41	39	45	41	46	38	45		-23
24	T	68	47	53	44	37	40		40		40	48		-28
27	T	73	72	64	56	54	55	76	58	55	52	59		-19
28	T	76	56	49	48	51	42	38	37	41	90	48		-38
29	T	68	61	55	47	42	45	44	46	47	34	50		-26

APPENDIX D 22: Diastolic blood pressure data (mm Hg) measured using the Cardiocap CM104™ during induction of anaesthesia with midazolam (M), propofol (P) and thiopentone (T) from Jones et al (1993d).

Patient number	Induction agent	Time after induction (min)											Maximum change in first 6 min
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
4	M	105	76	71	73	74	74	62	81	83	81	90	-43
7	M	90		85	75	60	62	63	93	84	77	77	-30
9	M	94	80	81	70	67	73	75	72	70	66	67	-27
11	M	79	85	76	46	68	62	65	62	64	65	68	-33
12	M	85	75	75	65	63	57		51	68	74	68	-28
14	M	66	65	67	51	51	53	53	63	58	62	62	-15
19	M	68		60	55	57	49	50				63	-19
20	M	84	70	66	63	63	63	69	82	70	76	86	-21
23	M	77	96	83	71	70	86	75	71	72	70	71	19
26	M	56	58	63	76	60	59	58	56	70	73	63	20
2	P	76	96	78	71	60	58	58	63	61	58	65	20
5	P	83	64	59	58	59	60	70	71	64	63	61	-25
6	P	85	54	53	54	54	52	56		55	50	51	-33
13	P	67	62	58	53	53	55	61	56	58	56	60	-14
16	P	78	58	53	50		49		61	61	61	61	-29
17	P	66		55	54	53	50	56	66	56	50	64	-16
18	P	76	78	76	51	50	51	52	61				-26
22	P	71	53	51	50	54	53	53	65	69	64	67	-21
25	P	69	61	56	55	57	58	57		61	68	67	-14
30	P	78	77	66	52	55	63	47	67	67	66	79	-31
1	T	66	73	76	90	79	70	78	74	61	64	64	24
3	T	71	73	77	66		50	58	62	59	60	62	-21
8	T	95	85	80	74	69	69	68	71	77	74	74	-27
10	T	96	63	91	82	59	54	75	73	76	74	78	-42
15	T	85	81		69	61	59	64		68	62	74	-26
21	T	73	65	65	62	57	48	58	55	58	57	59	-25
24	T	77	58	63	50	47	55		53		53	60	-30
27	T	87	88	77	73	70	66	86	71	59	68	70	-21
28	T	84	68	59	59	61	54	49	45	51	102	56	-36
29	T	83	80	65	56	55	56	58	55	57	52	59	-28

APPENDIX D 23: Mean blood pressure data (mm Hg) measured using the Cardiacap CM104™ during induction of anaesthesia with midazolam (M), propofol (P) and thiopentone (T) from Jones et al (1993d).

Patient number	Induction agent	0	1	2	3	Time after induction (min)	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Maximum change in first 6 min
4	M	123	112	90	95	94	95	93	110	111	109	117		-33
7	M	94		124	94	74	104	92	113	120	106	106		30
9	M	114	106	108	107	125	114	98	95	93	93	94		-16
11	M	130	130	127	116	129	125	118	113	114	112	118		-14
12	M	88	89	119	116	122	104		89	114	106	105		34
14	M	105	129	107	105	99	107	109	109	113	110	107		24
19	M	73		83	79	79	77	81				94		10
20	M	112	114	107	111	115	114	152	134	123	120	153		40
23	M	81	122	126	120	119	109	136	133	127	117	114		55
26	M	89	105	128	131	103	105	104	107	112	137	139		42
2	P	78	98	106	108	97	81	95	85	91	86	96		30
5	P	129	120	123	125	125	126	129	139	129	127	124		-9
6	P	108	90	89	91	87	86	86	86	83	86	88		-22
13	P	91	94	94	87	85	88	87	97	93	95	93		-6
16	P	112	113	111	107		108		104	104	105	103		-5
17	P	87		92	94	95	96	98	95	95	94	95		11
18	P	113	124	108	101	100	99	92	97					-21
22	P	93	87	89	81	78	69	81	85	84	78	89		-24
25	P	75	96	89	87	82	85	85		94	85	81		21
30	P	107	141	116	108	101	99	100	96	97	93	117		34
1	T	135	128	121	148	135	119	113	115	117	104	104		-22
3	T	89	117	119	109	95	93	92	94	97	98	99		30
8	T	103	129	130	125	122	119	97	103	91	94	97		27
10	T	96	131	133	100	93	81	83	86	91	93	93		37
15	T	120	113	108	102	98	95	89		96	95	95		-31
21	T	83	105	103	105	98	91	86	82	84	89	91		22
24	T	91	99	97	89	84	78		73		78	80		-13
27	T	110	129	113	99	86	82	83	78	83	83	81		-28
28	T	106	113	119	121	115	109	99	87	88	92	92		15
29	T	166	140	111	97	89	93	98	121	101	118	106		-77

APPENDIX D 24: Heart rate data (beats min⁻¹) measured using the CardiCap CM104™ during induction of anaesthesia with midazolam (M), propofol (P) and thiopentone (T) from Jones et al (1993d).

Finapres Haemodynamic Data - Midazolam Group - (n = 8)

SYSTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)				DIASTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			MEAN BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			HEART RATE (beats min ⁻¹)		
TIME (sec)	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range
-120	102	40	35 - 164	72	25	29 - 113	85	29	31 - 133	92	20	67 - 123
-110	101	41	34 - 167	69	27	29 - 117	81	32	30 - 134	100	20	70 - 128
-100	105	29	71 - 148	72	20	52 - 111	86	24	62 - 131	98	19	70 - 134
-90	109	32	62 - 169	74	22	53 - 122	88	26	54 - 141	97	17	67 - 126
-80	106	33	62 - 168	74	22	55 - 122	86	26	54 - 141	96	18	64 - 128
-70	113	33	74 - 180	78	21	56 - 125	91	26	64 - 146	98	17	69 - 124
-60	114	27	87 - 168	81	17	55 - 114	94	20	68 - 137	102	14	78 - 126
-50	113	28	85 - 166	80	17	59 - 114	94	20	70 - 131	101	13	83 - 121
-40	117	26	89 - 169	82	18	54 - 118	94	22	69 - 139	103	15	85 - 133
-30	116	27	90 - 171	81	18	55 - 117	95	21	69 - 139	100	16	76 - 125
-20	116	26	92 - 165	79	18	55 - 115	95	21	70 - 137	99	16	72 - 125
-10	118	24	93 - 164	82	17	61 - 116	96	20	70 - 137	105	15	86 - 131
0	115	19	89 - 146	83	16	60 - 113	97	17	74 - 130	99	18	73 - 129
10	116	28	84 - 170	83	20	60 - 122	96	21	70 - 138	102	12	84 - 115
20	120	39	63 - 192	82	27	38 - 124	95	30	48 - 150	101	21	72 - 141
30	104	23	63 - 132	73	21	38 - 94	88	23	47 - 114	101	17	76 - 132
40	106	24	61 - 130	72	20	36 - 95	87	23	46 - 118	101	11	87 - 117
50	100	24	53 - 128	68	18	33 - 88	82	22	38 - 101	99	16	79 - 127
60	100	24	56 - 124	68	19	33 - 88	81	21	42 - 106	102	22	65 - 140
70	106	32	55 - 162	72	23	33 - 110	84	25	41 - 121	93	11	70 - 107
80	101	21	57 - 122	71	19	34 - 92	80	18	42 - 101	97	27	63 - 148
90	98	20	57 - 117	68	18	32 - 84	81	20	41 - 101	102	21	70 - 133
100	95	22	52 - 116	67	21	30 - 94	77	21	38 - 102	96	19	70 - 133
110	97	21	57 - 123	68	19	34 - 93	78	20	40 - 107	102	21	74 - 129
120	102	12	83 - 115	73	14	53 - 94	85	16	64 - 112	108	24	67 - 140
130	100	14	81 - 127	70	13	52 - 94	83	14	64 - 111	108	21	75 - 142

SYSTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)				DIASTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			MEAN BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			HEART RATE (beats min ⁻¹)		
TIME (sec)	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range
140	102	16	82 - 134	72	14	54 - 102	84	15	66 - 117	108	25	60 - 143
150	100	14	82 - 125	71	12	52 - 94	83	12	66 - 107	110	23	70 - 142
160	98	11	80 - 113	70	10	54 - 83	82	12	67 - 104	112	23	75 - 143
170	96	12	80 - 113	69	11	50 - 83	80	10	63 - 93	112	21	85 - 144
180	95	12	76 - 113	68	12	48 - 84	79	11	59 - 93	110	19	86 - 145
190	96	17	74 - 131	70	17	47 - 101	80	17	56 - 115	108	19	91 - 145
200	98	19	72 - 135	70	17	46 - 100	81	17	55 - 113	110	17	96 - 143
210	100	24	71 - 153	74	23	46 - 120	85	24	55 - 136	112	19	90 - 142
220	98	21	69 - 142	73	19	46 - 110	82	21	54 - 127	110	24	65 - 139
230	94	14	68 - 112	70	13	47 - 90	80	13	54 - 96	114	15	96 - 137
240	96	20	72 - 139	71	19	48 - 114	81	17	58 - 117	115	19	95 - 141
250	94	18	72 - 128	69	16	48 - 101	79	14	57 - 107	112	20	86 - 145
260	96	25	70 - 152	71	22	46 - 120	82	25	55 - 139	109	19	82 - 138
270	98	29	68 - 163	72	24	44 - 126	83	28	54 - 147	110	16	92 - 136
280	99	27	66 - 158	72	21	42 - 116	82	23	51 - 132	110	18	84 - 132
290	98	26	65 - 154	72	20	42 - 115	83	23	50 - 131	111	16	88 - 132
300	97	23	63 - 143	71	19	41 - 108	82	21	49 - 124	109	17	88 - 133
310	96	29	62 - 160	71	23	41 - 121	81	24	49 - 134	107	19	76 - 136
320	95	29	63 - 158	70	22	42 - 120	81	27	49 - 141	107	18	77 - 134
330	95	32	62 - 165	71	27	41 - 132	81	29	49 - 146	108	20	75 - 132
340	93	34	61 - 167	68	28	40 - 132	80	31	48 - 151	106	17	80 - 133
350	91	33	53 - 160	68	30	35 - 134	75	27	41 - 130	98	16	70 - 127
360	93	23	63 - 140	70	21	41 - 114	81	23	49 - 131	108	17	82 - 129
370	96	32	64 - 170	70	26	42 - 130	82	29	51 - 149	105	18	74 - 125
380	97	33	63 - 169	72	26	42 - 128	83	29	50 - 147	103	18	74 - 126
390	97	32	65 - 166	72	25	44 - 127	83	29	52 - 146	100	18	68 - 122
400	97	31	65 - 165	72	26	43 - 128	82	28	52 - 144	105	18	75 - 127

SYSTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)				DIASTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			MEAN BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			HEART RATE (beats min ⁻¹)		
TIME (sec)	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range
410	98	31	66 - 157	74	23	43 - 119	85	27	51 - 136	103	20	71 - 125
420	99	33	61 - 160	74	25	43 - 121	86	29	51 - 140	102	20	65 - 127
430	98	32	59 - 155	73	23	43 - 115	84	27	52 - 133	104	20	67 - 133
440	97	32	58 - 153	72	23	43 - 113	83	28	52 - 133	103	22	66 - 136
450	99	33	60 - 157	74	24	44 - 117	85	28	53 - 136	105	21	70 - 138
460	99	31	62 - 155	74	24	44 - 117	84	27	54 - 134	106	22	69 - 138
470	99	32	60 - 156	74	23	49 - 118	84	27	54 - 135	108	19	72 - 136
480	101	33	62 - 163	75	25	51 - 125	86	29	57 - 143	108	19	73 - 136
490	101	31	64 - 161	75	24	53 - 123	87	28	58 - 142	108	19	72 - 135
500	101	31	66 - 161	75	23	55 - 124	86	27	60 - 141	109	19	72 - 135
510	103	33	66 - 169	76	25	53 - 130	88	29	60 - 148	107	20	70 - 135
520	101	33	60 - 167	75	26	48 - 128	86	29	54 - 147	107	20	69 - 134
530	91	17	64 - 110	65	11	51 - 79	77	13	58 - 93	105	21	69 - 133
540	104	38	64 - 183	75	30	51 - 141	84	25	58 - 136	105	19	69 - 132
550	99	33	61 - 165	73	25	49 - 124	85	28	56 - 142	107	21	69 - 134
560	99	31	62 - 160	71	24	46 - 119	83	27	54 - 138	107	20	72 - 133
570	100	31	67 - 164	73	24	49 - 123	85	27	58 - 142	108	21	70 - 132
580	100	29	69 - 161	72	22	51 - 119	85	25	60 - 138	107	21	69 - 132
590	102	28	71 - 158	73	21	52 - 115	86	24	62 - 135	107	20	67 - 132
600	102	29	71 - 159	72	21	52 - 116	85	25	62 - 136	108	21	67 - 133
610	102	29	71 - 159	73	21	52 - 115	85	24	60 - 134	108	21	68 - 133
620	102	27	72 - 153	73	20	52 - 111	85	22	63 - 128	110	22	69 - 134
630	102	27	74 - 156	73	20	53 - 112	86	23	64 - 131	109	21	70 - 132
640	101	26	73 - 153	72	20	53 - 110	85	23	63 - 130	108	21	69 - 133
650	101	25	73 - 149	72	19	52 - 108	85	21	64 - 125	110	22	71 - 133
660	102	27	75 - 155	73	21	52 - 113	86	23	63 - 131	110	22	71 - 134
670	102	28	75 - 157	73	22	51 - 116	86	24	63 - 134	111	24	70 - 136

SYSTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)				DIASTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			MEAN BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			HEART RATE (beats min ⁻¹)		
TIME (sec)	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range
680	102	29	71 - 158	73	23	50 - 116	86	25	63 - 135	112	25	71 - 137
690	103	30	72 - 160	73	23	50 - 117	86	26	61 - 136	112	22	76 - 138
700	103	27	75 - 156	74	21	50 - 113	86	23	61 - 131	114	20	85 - 138
710	102	24	75 - 147	74	20	50 - 113	86	22	61 - 129	110	20	80 - 136
720	104	27	75 - 156	74	21	49 - 115	87	23	61 - 133	112	19	84 - 136
730	105	27	75 - 156	74	20	49 - 112	87	22	61 - 129	113	18	87 - 133
740	105	26	75 - 155	74	19	49 - 111	88	22	60 - 130	111	17	88 - 132
750	103	25	75 - 151	73	18	49 - 107	86	21	61 - 126	112	17	95 - 135
760	103	26	77 - 154	73	19	51 - 110	86	22	63 - 128	112	16	91 - 133
770	103	25	74 - 151	73	19	51 - 110	86	21	63 - 127	114	13	99 - 133
780	104	25	79 - 155	75	19	53 - 114	88	22	65 - 132	113	14	95 - 133
790	105	26	80 - 158	74	21	54 - 117	88	22	67 - 135	113	14	95 - 133
800	103	27	76 - 158	74	20	55 - 116	86	23	65 - 133	114	12	102 - 133
810	104	28	77 - 162	74	22	55 - 121	87	25	66 - 139	113	15	92 - 132
820	104	28	77 - 162	74	22	54 - 120	88	24	66 - 138	112	17	82 - 132
830	105	28	82 - 164	74	23	52 - 121	88	25	65 - 140	111	16	86 - 132
840	104	27	81 - 162	73	22	52 - 119	87	25	65 - 139	113	13	100 - 132

APPENDIX D 25: Haemodynamic data measured using the Finapres™ during induction of anaesthesia with midazolam from Jones et al (1993d)

Finapres Haemodynamic Data - Propofol Group - (n = 9)

SYSTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)				DIASTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			MEAN BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			HEART RATE (beats min ⁻¹)		
TIME (sec)	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range
-120	114	44	47-169	61	32	23-105	78	37	26-125	99	15	86-116
-110	119	37	71-174	61	34	27-108	81	36	40-132	92	12	78-108
-100	113	44	47-168	58	37	16-107	75	42	26-129	93	14	72-111
-90	118	29	83-171	60	30	27-105	78	34	31-129	93	17	65-114
-80	110	41	46-172	59	33	18-106	76	37	29-129	98	20	69-128
-70	120	29	89-170	64	28	18-102	83	30	37-127	94	11	76-105
-60	109	28	59-145	54	26	20-82	72	26	34-101	94	10	78-105
-50	107	33	50-150	54	28	16-89	71	31	26-109	94	14	78-110
-40	110	29	60-148	58	27	22-85	75	27	39-105	91	9	80-106
-30	108	36	41-149	56	29	14-86	74	31	26-107	93	15	76-110
-20	121	16	96-139	66	20	35-85	83	20	53-105	99	16	78-122
-10	123	12	107-139	69	18	34-85	87	18	54-107	99	20	80-135
0	115	21	80-145	74	22	38-108	91	25	59-139	101	38	12-133
10	103	26	70-140	66	27	28-107	82	28	49-125	108	30	46-143
20	96	36	56-164	61	33	24-129	74	34	28-138	109	15	96-140
30	95	36	47-165	59	27	13-107	72	31	24-131	109	17	91-133
40	94	35	42-163	57	26	9-97	70	29	17-119	103	10	85-120
50	94	35	42-146	58	27	9-91	71	29	17-107	102	7	93-114
60	93	32	49-137	55	24	18-80	69	27	30-99	99	10	86-114
70	88	31	39-134	55	23	16-84	66	26	28-103	98	10	82-116
80	84	33	39-131	56	27	16-88	66	29	22-99	104	10	86-117
90	94	32	46-136	61	28	15-100	74	30	27-110	104	14	82-122
100	88	27	43-129	55	23	16-86	67	24	26-94	103	14	87-137
110	87	25	43-128	52	24	14-85	65	24	25-96	105	16	86-139
120	91	29	42-140	54	25	13-97	68	27	25-116	104	15	88-135

SYSTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)				DIASTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			MEAN BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			HEART RATE (beats min ⁻¹)		
TIME (sec)	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range
130	90	28	42-137	53	23	12-87	67	25	24-107	100	9	90-118
140	82	30	41-135	50	23	11-84	62	27	21-106	96	8	88-109
150	89	25	40-125	53	22	9-80	66	24	19-99	98	10	85-112
160	87	24	40-120	51	20	11-74	64	23	20-94	97	8	88-107
170	87	24	38-118	51	20	8-74	63	22	18-91	97	8	87-108
180	85	24	39-119	50	20	8-73	63	22	19-92	97	9	84-109
190	82	24	38-113	48	22	5-70	60	24	16-87	95	9	84-105
200	82	22	34-107	49	19	7-65	60	21	16-81	95	9	84-108
210	80	22	31-102	48	20	5-63	60	21	14-78	95	9	81-109
220	80	19	38-100	47	20	6-66	59	20	17-77	95	8	82-102
230	79	18	39-98	46	19	7-66	58	19	19-76	94	7	82-100
240	79	18	40-100	47	19	7-65	58	19	20-76	94	7	81-101
250	78	20	39-101	47	21	4-66	58	21	17-76	93	8	79-101
260	72	24	34-101	43	23	4-68	53	23	16-77	90	10	73-100
270	77	19	39-100	44	23	3-68	56	22	16-79	93	7	79-101
280	75	18	41-101	43	23	4-67	56	21	20-78	93	8	78-102
290	75	18	41-102	43	22	4-67	55	21	20-78	92	9	77-104
300	76	16	52-101	46	17	20-68	57	18	26-78	91	10	69-104
310	77	16	50-101	46	19	16-70	57	18	30-80	91	10	72-105
320	79	16	51-102	48	20	14-68	60	19	30-80	93	11	75-107
330	80	16	52-104	48	21	13-68	60	19	28-80	93	9	76-102
340	77	17	43-103	49	19	19-66	60	19	27-79	93	9	77-102
350	75	19	33-104	48	17	20-67	58	17	25-79	80	28	10-97
360	73	21	28-97	49	19	15-67	60	18	22-79	91	11	74-110
370	79	20	35-101	54	14	27-68	64	17	28-81	89	19	44-102
380	80	19	41-102	55	16	27-70	65	17	32-83	97	11	85-119
390	83	22	34-103	57	16	28-74	67	19	27-84	97	14	82-130

SYSTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)				DIASTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			MEAN BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			HEART RATE (beats min ⁻¹)		
TIME (sec)	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range
400	85	19	45 -108	59	14	39 - 77	69	16	41 - 89	98	11	82 -119
410	86	22	44 -117	59	17	37 - 89	70	19	40 -101	96	15	78 -126
420	88	22	44 -122	60	17	38 - 89	71	19	40 -103	97	15	78 -121
430	88	22	44 -122	60	17	38 - 91	71	19	40 -103	98	14	78 -126
440	92	24	44 -122	62	17	38 - 89	73	19	40 -104	98	12	78 -116
450	91	20	62 -117	62	16	39 - 84	74	18	46 - 98	90	27	24 -113
460	93	18	67 -116	64	16	41 - 89	76	17	51 -101	97	8	85 -111
470	91	16	66 -114	62	13	42 - 83	74	15	53 - 96	94	11	74 -115
480	91	19	59 -118	59	19	29 - 89	70	23	26 -103	99	8	85 -108
490	92	18	67 -117	60	17	40 - 87	73	17	52 -100	96	8	84 -109
500	92	17	66 -116	60	17	37 - 85	72	18	44 - 98	98	9	82 -110
510	96	13	79 -117	62	15	40 - 83	75	16	55 - 96	99	8	85 -109
520	95	12	78 -113	61	14	41 - 81	75	14	56 - 94	99	7	87 -109
530	95	13	73 -112	61	15	36 - 83	75	15	53 - 97	100	7	86 -111
540	96	14	72 -111	63	15	34 - 81	77	15	50 - 95	98	7	91 -112
550	94	14	74 -110	61	16	34 - 82	74	16	50 - 95	99	12	74 -114
560	94	13	75 -109	60	15	36 - 79	74	15	53 - 92	96	12	74 -115
570	94	14	74 -108	60	15	34 - 79	74	15	52 - 92	96	11	74 -116
580	93	15	70 -109	60	16	34 - 80	74	16	51 - 92	99	9	86 -113
590	94	13	75 -108	61	14	36 - 78	75	14	53 - 91	100	7	90 -111
600	97	13	73 -109	63	15	33 - 80	77	14	51 - 94	99	9	85 -111
610	96	13	72 -108	60	14	31 - 74	73	13	49 - 89	102	11	88 -115
620	93	12	71 -107	58	14	31 - 73	72	13	49 - 88	101	11	83 -117
630	92	12	72 -107	58	14	31 - 73	72	14	48 - 88	102	12	84 -117
640	92	12	71 -107	57	13	31 - 73	71	13	48 - 88	102	11	85 -116
650	92	12	73 -107	57	13	32 - 73	71	13	49 - 88	100	12	79 -112
660	91	12	73 -107	57	12	33 - 73	71	13	49 - 88	100	11	81 -113

TIME (sec)	SYSTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			DIASTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			MEAN BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			HEART RATE (beats min ⁻¹)		
	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range
670	89	17	64 -115	58	16	32 - 84	70	16	49 - 95	100	13	82 -118
680	96	15	71 -119	61	18	32 - 90	75	17	48 -103	107	11	94 -128
690	96	16	71 -123	61	19	31 - 94	75	18	48 -107	109	12	95 -132
700	97	18	71 -129	63	19	31 - 95	77	19	48 -111	110	10	100 -129
710	97	18	71 -127	63	20	31 - 95	77	19	48 -109	110	12	98 -130
720	100	18	72 -126	65	19	32 - 92	80	19	49 -109	112	10	99 -122
730	94	19	67 -123	62	17	36 - 88	75	19	50 -104	108	12	92 -125
740	97	17	74 -124	62	17	36 - 87	76	17	52 -104	108	10	97 -126
750	95	18	75 -121	62	18	37 - 85	75	19	51 -101	107	12	92 -126
760	95	18	73 -120	61	17	36 - 83	75	17	52 - 98	108	11	97 -126
770	94	16	73 -117	61	15	36 - 80	74	16	51 - 97	108	9	97 -122
780	95	15	75 -118	62	14	41 - 82	76	15	56 - 98	107	5	99 -112
790	92	16	72 -115	62	11	46 - 79	73	16	53 - 95	108	9	96 -118
800	97	13	82 -115	63	11	47 - 79	76	12	61 - 94	108	9	96 -119
810	96	12	83 -113	63	10	48 - 79	76	11	63 - 94	110	8	101 -122
820	94	15	83 -116	63	14	48 - 82	76	15	63 - 98	115	6	107 -119
830	95	14	84 -115	63	14	47 - 80	76	14	62 - 96	113	7	105 -121
840	95	14	84 -111	62	15	46 - 76	76	15	62 - 92	107	8	98 -114

APPENDIX D 26: Haemodynamic data measured using the Finapres™ during induction of anaesthesia with propofol from Jones et al (1993d)

Finapres Haemodynamic Data - Thiopentone Group - (n = 8)

TIME (sec)	SYSTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			DIASTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			MEAN BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			HEART RATE (beats min ⁻¹)		
	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range
-120	105	15	78 -127	70	18	42 - 98	83	15	58 -105	100	16	88 -131
-110	110	23	76 -149	75	17	47 - 99	85	18	56 -115	103	20	72 -134
-100	101	13	77 -119	67	16	49 - 87	81	15	59 -102	99	13	78 -118
-90	102	18	75 -127	69	19	45 - 98	81	17	59 -105	101	17	80 -132
-80	109	21	73 -140	74	19	46 -101	88	19	57 -115	104	16	84 -135
-70	103	21	64 -129	68	23	36 - 96	81	22	48 -109	101	17	84 -131
-60	110	16	86 -133	73	19	49 - 99	86	19	62 -111	103	18	85 -137
-50	108	19	72 -136	73	20	43 -104	85	16	55 -101	99	18	79 -132
-40	109	20	77 -141	73	19	43 - 99	87	18	58 -115	103	20	81 -140
-30	111	24	69 -149	74	22	40 -103	88	21	53 -120	103	20	78 -132
-20	108	23	68 -145	72	21	39 -103	86	19	55 -114	99	21	75 -138
-10	105	19	69 -130	71	17	42 - 89	85	15	58 -104	100	17	81 -132
0	105	18	74 -127	69	17	42 - 87	83	13	64 - 97	105	12	83 -117
10	104	13	84 -123	71	14	47 - 92	83	15	64 -107	113	11	93 -130
20	96	9	82 -110	64	10	46 - 79	77	10	60 - 93	112	12	96 -129
30	97	12	82 -116	68	15	48 - 87	82	14	63 - 98	117	14	100 -135
40	106	19	78 -131	74	18	45 - 96	87	19	61 -114	113	13	92 -127
50	105	21	78 -140	74	20	41 -106	89	26	57 -140	111	15	91 -132
60	99	18	70 -125	69	16	45 - 85	83	16	59 -102	113	11	98 -130
70	95	25	68 -140	64	20	42 - 98	78	20	55 -115	110	16	91 -137
80	84	34	37 -132	57	25	16 - 86	67	31	13 -102	101	15	80 -121
90	93	27	58 -143	63	22	36 -100	73	21	46 -110	109	15	89 -133
100	94	29	52 -151	63	24	33 -108	75	24	45 -122	107	16	85 -135
110	92	28	54 -146	62	23	33 -105	73	23	43 -116	107	15	85 -132
120	93	29	58 -149	63	24	35 -107	74	25	44 -122	106	15	84 -128
130	93	26	57 -142	63	22	35 -102	75	22	46 -115	105	14	87 -123

SYSTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)				DIASTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			MEAN BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			HEART RATE (beats min ⁻¹)		
TIME (sec)	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range
140	90	23	58 -131	61	20	34 - 95	72	21	44 -107	103	17	77 -124
150	88	24	54 -130	59	21	31 - 94	69	23	34 -105	103	16	82 -123
160	87	23	54 -125	58	21	32 - 91	69	20	42 -101	103	15	85 -123
170	87	22	53 -123	58	20	32 - 89	69	19	42 - 98	103	15	85 -122
180	86	21	53 -120	57	20	31 - 88	69	19	42 - 97	102	16	82 -121
190	86	22	59 -125	58	21	32 - 93	69	21	42 -104	101	16	82 -120
200	85	21	58 -121	57	20	35 - 89	68	20	43 -101	99	19	70 -124
210	85	23	59 -127	58	21	36 - 96	68	21	47 -107	102	17	84 -129
220	85	22	60 -123	57	19	36 - 90	68	20	47 -103	102	15	85 -121
230	86	24	59 -131	58	23	35 -104	68	21	47 -108	103	18	85 -134
240	87	27	60 -144	59	25	36 -114	70	27	47 -129	104	21	87 -147
250	87	29	61 -148	59	27	37 -117	70	28	48 -133	104	22	87 -148
260	86	27	62 -142	58	24	37 -108	68	23	49 -115	102	23	84 -149
270	84	22	62 -127	57	22	36 -101	68	22	48 -113	101	22	82 -146
280	84	22	61 -124	58	21	36 - 99	69	22	48 -115	100	22	83 -146
290	84	24	60 -132	57	22	36 -100	67	22	47 -111	100	22	82 -144
300	83	22	60 -126	56	20	36 - 95	66	20	47 -108	99	20	80 -139
310	82	21	61 -125	55	19	37 - 93	65	19	48 -104	98	19	78 -134
320	83	20	61 -121	56	18	39 - 91	66	18	51 -102	98	19	74 -131
330	85	20	63 -121	58	17	39 - 90	67	17	50 -100	96	18	72 -125
340	85	18	65 -116	59	14	42 - 87	69	15	53 - 98	96	16	78 -122
350	84	18	65 -114	57	15	42 - 86	67	16	49 - 96	96	16	78 -124
360	84	17	65 -112	58	14	43 - 84	68	14	55 - 94	95	14	79 -120
370	84	17	63 -111	58	14	44 - 84	68	14	54 - 94	93	14	77 -117
380	82	19	59 -112	57	16	42 - 84	66	16	48 - 93	92	17	71 -115
390	83	18	59 -109	58	15	42 - 81	68	16	51 - 92	94	17	73 -123
400	84	18	64 -110	58	18	40 - 87	69	16	56 - 97	94	15	77 -118

SYSTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)				DIASTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			MEAN BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			HEART RATE (beats min ⁻¹)		
TIME (sec)	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range
410	84	20	60-114	57	18	35-86	68	19	46-100	94	14	70-114
420	83	19	62-110	57	16	40-81	67	17	48-93	94	18	70-125
430	85	19	60-114	59	15	44-82	69	16	52-95	95	20	63-127
440	86	20	61-115	60	17	40-88	71	18	51-98	98	20	67-124
450	88	19	64-115	61	17	37-89	72	17	53-100	97	21	71-124
460	86	20	61-115	61	16	41-87	71	17	51-99	96	17	69-118
470	86	19	60-111	60	16	39-84	71	17	50-96	95	15	72-114
480	86	18	60-111	61	15	39-84	71	16	52-95	95	15	68-114
490	86	17	58-108	60	15	37-84	71	15	52-95	96	13	76-116
500	86	18	57-107	60	15	42-83	71	16	46-94	95	12	80-114
510	88	16	65-105	63	13	41-81	74	14	53-92	96	13	82-113
520	89	15	67-105	63	12	43-82	74	13	54-92	96	12	82-115
530	89	15	68-105	63	12	45-82	74	12	56-92	95	13	78-115
540	89	16	63-107	62	16	36-86	71	20	32-95	95	14	78-119
550	92	14	74-109	64	13	46-84	75	13	58-96	94	12	79-111
560	91	14	74-109	64	12	48-83	76	12	62-96	90	12	71-104
570	91	14	72-107	65	10	54-81	75	13	56-93	93	12	76-106
580	91	14	72-107	64	11	48-80	75	12	62-93	94	11	75-103
590	92	13	73-107	65	10	53-81	77	11	63-93	94	10	79-106
600	93	13	74-108	65	10	54-81	77	10	65-93	93	9	80-105
610	92	12	75-106	64	10	51-79	77	10	66-92	91	12	69-103
620	92	12	78-105	67	12	51-79	78	11	66-91	94	10	82-104
630	91	13	76-105	66	12	50-78	77	12	65-91	95	10	82-105
640	91	14	77-105	66	13	48-79	77	13	62-91	95	10	83-106
650	90	13	77-104	65	12	48-78	76	13	62-91	94	10	82-105
660	90	14	75-105	64	13	45-77	75	13	58-88	94	10	84-105
670	91	14	75-106	65	14	45-78	76	14	58-90	96	10	84-106
680	90	14	74-105	64	14	44-77	76	13	58-89	94	11	82-104

SYSTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)				DIASTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			MEAN BLOOD PRESSURE (mmHg)			HEART RATE (beats min ⁻¹)		
TIME (sec)	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range	average data	standard deviation	range
690	90	14	76 -104	64	12	46 - 76	76	13	59 - 89	95	10	83 -106
700	90	15	76 -107	64	14	45 - 80	76	14	59 - 93	93	11	81 -105
710	91	15	75 -107	65	14	45 - 78	76	14	58 - 91	93	10	81 -103
720	91	14	75 -106	65	14	45 - 78	76	14	58 - 91	94	11	81 -105
730	90	16	72 -106	64	15	42 - 77	75	15	55 - 90	93	12	78 -105
740	91	15	73 -107	64	15	42 - 79	76	15	56 - 91	92	11	79 -105
750	91	18	72 -111	65	16	42 - 83	76	17	55 - 95	92	13	78 -105
760	91	17	72 -111	65	16	42 - 83	77	17	55 - 97	93	12	80 -105
770	91	16	74 -108	64	15	42 - 79	76	16	56 - 93	93	14	77 -107
780	90	17	71 -107	63	16	41 - 79	75	16	54 - 93	94	14	78 -108
790	90	16	71 -108	63	15	41 - 78	75	15	54 - 90	95	17	77 -116
800	91	18	72 -110	64	16	41 - 81	75	16	54 - 92	94	17	77 -115
810	91	19	71 -113	64	17	41 - 83	76	17	54 - 96	94	16	78 -114
820	91	17	72 -109	63	15	42 - 80	75	16	55 - 93	94	14	79 -111
830	92	17	73 -111	64	16	42 - 82	76	16	55 - 94	95	15	78 -110
840	92	19	72 -112	65	17	41 - 83	77	18	55 - 96	95	16	77 -109

APPENDIX D 27: Haemodynamic data measured using the Finapres™ during induction of anaesthesia with thiopentone from Jones et al (1993d)

APPENDIX E

Assay methodology data

Midazolam	272
Thiopentone	274
Propofol	276

Method evaluation data for the assay of midazolam

Concentration (ng ml ⁻¹)	Regression parameters of calibration (4 typical curves, mean of 3 for each point)			
	1	2	3	4
40	0.094	0.123	0.089	0.100
100	0.189	0.128	0.149	0.158
200	0.286	0.310	0.373	0.373
500	0.809	0.910	0.839	0.830
1000	1.710	1.753	1.569	1.643
2000	3.855	3.753	3.454	-
Correlation	0.996	0.998	0.997	0.999
Slope	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.002
Intercept	-0.072	-0.037	0.012	0.026

Overall summary:

Calibration range	0 - 2000 ng ml ⁻¹
Correlation coefficient	0.997
Slope	0.00196
Intercept	- 0.01775
Internal standard	200 ng

Within-batch variation (n=3)

Amount added (ng ml ⁻¹)	Values found (ng ml ⁻¹)			mean	SD	CV (%)
40	50.5	45.0	37.5	44.3	5.33	12.03
500	499.5	522.5	465.0	495.7	23.63	4.77

Between-batch variation (mean of 3 for each point)

Concentration (ng ml ⁻¹)	Mean midazolam/I.S. ratio (n=3)			mean	SD	CV (%)
40	0.094	0.089	0.100	0.094	0.004	4.767
100	0.189	0.149	0.158	0.165	0.017	10.363
200	0.286	0.371	0.373	0.343	0.041	11.810
500	0.809	0.839	0.830	0.826	0.013	1.522
1000	1.710	1.569	1.643	1.641	0.058	3.510
2,000	3.855	3.454	-	3.655	0.201	5.486

Method evaluation data for the assay of thiopentone

Concentration ($\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$)	Regression parameters of calibration (5 typical curves, mean of 3 for each point)				
	1	2	3	4	5
0.05	0.057	0.035	0.030	0.035	0.0421
0.1	0.096	0.082	0.059	0.075	0.0657
1	0.976	0.726	0.620	0.666	0.6544
5	4.236	3.350	2.661	3.482	2.9537
10	7.104	7.725	5.800	6.926	5.9462
40	-	-	-	23.061	22.9783
Correlation	0.991	0.996	0.998	0.997	0.999
Slope	0.718	0.762	0.573	0.574	0.574
Intercept	0.169	-0.076	-0.017	-0.004	0.072

Summary overall:

Calibration range	0.05 - 40 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$
Correlation coefficient	0.996
Slope	0.64
Intercept	0.016
Internal standard	20 μg

Within-batch variation (n=3)

Amount added ($\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$)	Values found ($\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$)			mean	SD	CV(%)
1	0.9524	0.9855	1.2578	1.065	0.137	12.85
10	11.8856	12.4916	11.6609	12.013	0.351	2.92

Between-batch variation (mean of 3 for each point)

Concentration ($\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$)	Mean thiopentone/I.S. ratio (n =3)			mean	SD	CV (%)
0.05	0.035	0.035	0.042	0.037	0.003	8.957
0.1	0.082	0.075	0.066	0.074	0.007	8.994
1	0.726	0.666	0.654	0.682	0.031	4.600
5	3.350	3.482	2.954	3.262	0.225	6.882
10	7.725	6.926	5.946	6.866	0.727	10.595
40	-	23.061	22.978	23.020	0.041	0.180

Method evaluation data for the assay of propofol

Concentration ($\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$)	Regression parameters of calibration (5 typical curves, mean of 3 for each point)				
	1	2	3	4	5
0.010	0.0230	0.0166	0.0237	0.0198	0.0244
0.025	0.0218	0.0399	0.0314	0.0398	0.0337
0.050	0.0486	0.0604	0.0523	0.0630	0.0633
0.100	0.1264	0.1499	0.1319	0.1109	0.1230
0.250	0.2921	0.3650	0.3406	0.2452	0.2724
0.500	0.6827	0.8427	0.6632	0.5133	0.6014
1.000	1.3867	1.5102	1.3215	-	1.1323
Correlation	0.9985	0.9964	0.9997	0.9986	0.9988
Slope	1.3867	1.5388	1.3228	0.9932	1.1324
Intercept	-0.0159	0.0010	0.0007	0.0106	0.0085

Summary overall:

Calibration range	0.01 - 1.0 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$
Correlation coefficient	0.998
Slope	1.185
Intercept	0.00097
Internal standard	0.12 μg

Within-batch variation (n=3)

Amount added ($\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$)	Values found ($\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$)			mean	SD	CV (%)
0.01	0.0147	0.0161	0.0217	0.0175	0.0022	12.61
0.5	0.4923	0.5114	0.5021	0.5019	0.0055	1.09

Between-batch variation (mean of 3 for each point)

Concentration ($\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$)	Mean propofol/ I.S. ratio (n = 3)			mean	SD	CV (%)
0.01	0.023	0.024	0.024	0.0237	0.0004	1.71
0.025	0.022	0.031	0.034	0.0290	0.0036	12.58
0.050	0.049	0.052	0.063	0.0547	0.0044	0.08
0.100	0.126	0.132	0.123	0.1271	0.0026	2.04
0.250	0.292	0.341	0.272	0.3017	0.0203	6.72
0.500	0.683	0.663	0.601	0.6491	0.0245	4.08
1	1.377	1.322	1.132	1.1323	0.0742	5.81

APPENDIX F

Pharmacokinetic data

F1 - F7	Midazolam	279
F8 - F10	Flumazenil	286
F11 - F12	Propofol	289

Patient number	Time (min)															
	0	2	4	6	8	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	100	160	220	260
1	42	1,558	1,072	829	733	591	300	254	246	200	190	170	138	87	49	31
2	33	2,022	761	491	385	350	241	190	167	138	124	114	87	72	55	52
3	54	1,012	689	639	557	440	268	209	153	136	126	116	85	63	48	34
4	29	974	648	503	396	320	203	173	167	109	100	98	75	41	29	24
5	36	385	343	286	239	236	157	138	118	105	100	93	54	41	32	18
6	67	918	655	555	523	438	304	222	210	190	178	170	124	64	30	15
7	33	640	486	514	505	412	284	220	201	170	142	120	87	40	34	17
8	46	900	677	623	481	464	245	171	150	129	108	92	70	50	43	30
9	63	976	847	720	595	505	352	237	201	167	133	126	93	65	46	28
10	36	701	640	579	466	387	242	199	163	146	138	126	84	48	31	16
11	43	1,117	788	493	471	407	305	277	250	162	144	125	115	60	38	24
12	83	828	606	515	500	374	285	191	181	170	151	134	112	82	50	35
Mean	47.1	1,002.6	648.3	562.3	487.6	410.3	265.5	206.8	183.9	151.8	136.2	123.7	93.7	59.4	40.4	27
SD	15.8	409.7	173.1	129.2	115.4	86.7	49.7	36.8	37.6	28.6	26.8	24.5	23.1	15.2	8.8	10.1
Min.	29	385	343	286	239	236	157	138	118	105	100	92	54	40	29	15
Max.	83	2,022	1,072	829	733	591	352	277	250	200	190	170	138	87	55	52

APPENDIX F 1: Midazolam concentration (ng ml⁻¹) with time from Jones et al (1993).

Patient number	0	2	4	6	8	Time 10	(min) 15	20	30	60	120	180	240
1	246	220	210	206	200	197	190	184	170	138	87	49	30
2	173	167	154	152	140	138	136	124	114	87	72	55	52
3	161	157	153	149	146	138	136	127	108	85	63	55	41
4	167	154	113	109	107	105	104	100	98	75	41	29	24
5	118	115	112	111	110	105	101	100	93	54	41	32	18
6	198	196	190	186	183	180	178	173	168	124	64	30	15
7	201	196	192	174	170	173	165	142	120	87	41	34	17
8	108	97	94	92	90	83	81	72	70	52	47	38	23
9	225	201	185	181	177	174	167	133	126	93	65	46	28
10	172	166	163	160	151	148	146	138	126	84	48	31	17
11	261	257	250	216	206	184	162	149	125	115	60	38	24
12	170	165	159	151	146	141	134	127	120	103	82	50	35
Mean	183	174	165	157	152	147	142	131	120	91	59	41	27
SD	44.1	41.8	42.7	36.9	35.3	34.4	31.8	29.7	27.1	24.6	15.4	9.5	10.6
Min.	108	97	94	92	90	83	81	72	70	52	40	29	15
Max.	261	257	250	216	206	197	190	184	170	138	87	55	52

APPENDIX F 2: Midazolam concentration (ng ml^{-1}) at flumazenil sampling times postoperatively from Jones et al (1993).

Patient number	A (ng)	B (ng)	C (ng)	alpha (min-1)	beta (min-1)	gamma (min-1)	Dose (ng)
1	3,233.88	1,453.65	313.64	0.8228	0.1789	0.00819	9,350,000
2	3495.00	321.04	117.31	0.5572	0.0414	0.00319	8,000,000
3	4,764.51	765.02	174.76	0.4158	0.0956	0.00603	10,000,000
4	1119.60	233.43	82.30	0.2712	0.0271	0.00446	10,000,000
5	398.39	157.46	130.65	0.1850	0.0357	0.00779	16,000,000
6	1,288.12	312.33	124.19	0.7478	0.0600	0.01065	19,250,000
7	697.46	286.88	134.82	0.1275	0.0276	0.00713	7,000,000
8	960.47	291.25	113.35	0.1809	0.0440	0.00499	12,000,000
9	1,033.03	658.89	181.94	0.3722	0.0621	0.00658	10,000,000
10	824.02	162.08	150.69	0.1584	0.0274	0.00729	8,500,000
11	1,656.38	321.26	199.06	0.4914	0.0371	0.00764	12,500,000
12	948.79	218.84	211.88	0.2269	0.0576	0.00627	9,500,000

APPENDIX F 3: Midazolam - 3-compartment analysis from Jones et al (1993).

Patient number	Wt. (kg)	Anaesthesia time (min)	k_{12} (h ⁻¹)	k_{21} (h ⁻¹)	k_{13} (h ⁻¹)	k_{31} (h ⁻¹)	k_{10} (h ⁻¹)	$k_{12} : k_{21}$	$k_{31} : k_{10}$	V (L)	V ₂ (L)	V ₃ (L)	V _d (L)	V _d / Wt (L kg ⁻¹)	V _{ss} (L)	V _{ss} / Wt (L kg ⁻¹)	t _{1/2α} (min)	t _{1/2β} (min)	t _{1/2γ} (min)	Clearance (ml min ⁻¹)	Clearance / Wt (ml min ⁻¹ kg ⁻¹)
1	18.7	31	1.49	23.67	14.20	1.84	5.96	0.06	0.31	1.9	1.2	19.6	22.7	1.21	21.5	1.15	0.84	3.9	84.6	206	11.02
2	16.0	33	16.76	5.53	8.50	0.61	4.64	3.01	0.13	2.0	6.3	41.0	49.3	3.08	45.1	2.82	1.24	18.0	189.0	199	12.44
3	20.0	39	5.76	8.57	8.78	0.85	7.06	0.67	0.12	1.8	1.2	31.3	34.3	1.72	36.4	1.82	1.67	7.3	115.0	285	14.25
4	20.0	35	8.08	4.64	2.12	0.55	2.76	1.74	0.20	6.9	12.8	52.0	71.7	3.59	41.9	2.10	2.56	26.0	105.0	372	18.60
5	32.0	43	3.92	5.55	1.33	1.13	1.76	0.71	0.64	23.3	18.0	46.7	88.0	2.75	93.7	2.93	3.75	19.0	89.0	736	23.00
6	38.5	40	24.38	13.52	4.25	1.37	5.56	1.80	0.25	11.5	21.1	65.0	97.6	2.54	47.2	1.23	0.93	12.0	65.0	547	14.21
7	14.0	31	2.41	3.74	0.89	0.75	1.93	0.65	0.39	6.3	4.6	17.5	28.4	2.03	21.9	1.56	5.00	25.0	97.0	240	17.14
8	24.0	58	3.03	4.81	2.83	0.75	2.37	0.63	0.32	8.8	5.9	54.7	69.4	2.89	58.5	2.44	3.80	16.0	139.0	375	15.63
9	20.0	31	7.63	11.77	3.28	1.01	2.74	0.65	0.37	5.3	3.6	28.1	37.0	1.85	30.4	1.52	1.90	11.0	105.0	268	13.40
10	17.0	31	3.36	3.49	1.27	0.91	2.14	1.08	0.43	6.5	9.2	20.0	35.7	2.10	27.3	1.61	4.40	25.0	95.0	303	17.82
11	25.0	29	16.78	8.30	2.59	1.06	3.47	2.02	0.30	5.7	12.3	24.9	42.9	1.72	35.0	1.40	1.40	18.0	90.0	355	14.20
12	19.0	48	4.02	5.98	3.96	1.49	1.98	0.67	0.75	6.9	4.9	24.4	36.2	1.91	34.6	1.82	3.10	12.0	110.0	243	12.79
Mean	22.0	37	8.17	8.30	4.50	1.03	3.53	1.14	0.35	7.2	8.4	35.4	51.1	2.20	41.1	1.87	2.55	16.1	107.0	344	15.37
SD	6.7	8	6.93	5.52	3.83	0.37	1.74	0.80	0.18	5.6	6.1	15.3	23.5	0.66	18.9	0.57	1.37	6.8	30.2	150	3.16
Min.	14.0	29	1.49	3.49	0.89	0.55	1.76	0.06	0.12	1.8	1.2	17.5	22.7	1.21	21.5	1.15	0.84	3.9	65.0	199	11.02
Max.	38.5	58	24.38	23.67	14.20	1.84	7.06	3.01	0.75	23.3	21.1	65.0	97.6	3.59	93.7	2.93	5.00	26.0	189.0	736	23.00

APPENDIX F 4: Midazolam pharmacokinetic findings in the 12 children from Jones et al (1993). $V_d = V + V_2 + V_3$.

Patient number	Body weight (kg)	$t_{1/2}$ (min)	AUC (total) (ng min ml ⁻¹)	Cl (ml min ⁻¹)	Clearance / Wt (ml min ⁻¹ kg ⁻¹)	$V_d(ss)$ (L)	V_d / Wt (L kg ⁻¹)	V^* (L)	V^* / Wt (L kg ⁻¹)	MRT (min)
1	18.7	84.6	45410.3	205.90	11.01	21.5	1.15	25.2	1.35	104.6
2	16.0	179.4	27871.5	198.70	12.42	45.1	2.82	51.5	3.22	227.1
3	20.0	105.7	29177.5	284.90	14.25	36.4	1.82	43.4	2.17	127.8
4	20.0	97.6	23983.5	371.64	18.58	42.0	2.10	52.3	2.62	112.9
5	32.0	100.3	19033.0	735.85	23.00	93.7	2.93	106.5	3.33	127.4
6	38.5	59.7	33877.5	547.11	14.21	47.2	1.23	47.1	1.22	86.3
7	14.0	77.8	27292.0	239.55	17.11	21.9	1.56	26.9	1.92	91.3
8	24.0	148.4	26616.0	374.52	15.61	58.5	2.44	80.2	3.34	156.1
9	20.0	100.5	33082.0	268.46	13.42	30.4	1.52	38.9	1.95	113.4
10	17.0	72.4	24979.0	303.46	17.85	27.3	1.61	31.7	1.86	89.8
11	25.0	82.5	32414.5	355.22	14.21	35.0	1.40	42.3	1.69	98.5
12	19.0	111.5	32982.5	242.82	12.78	35.6	1.87	39.1	2.06	142.4
Mean	22.0	101.7	29726.6	344.01	15.37	41.2	1.90	48.8	2.20	123.1
SD	6.7	31.9	6334.5	149.66	3.16	18.9	0.60	22.2	0.70	37.6
Min.	14.0	59.7	19033.0	198.70	11.01	21.5	1.10	25.2	1.20	86.3
Max.	38.5	179.4	45410.3	735.85	23.00	93.7	2.90	106.5	3.30	227.1

APPENDIX F 5: Midazolam non-compartmental analysis from Jones et al (1993).

Patient number	Time to eyes open (sec)	Time to eyes open (min)	Midazolam concentration (ng ml ⁻¹)	Time to self identification (sec)	Time to self identification (min)	Midazolam concentration (ng ml ⁻¹)
1	2760	46	215	2880	48	208
2	2520	42	160	2640	44	153
3	2880	48	138	3000	50	136
4	2640	44	154	2700	45	133
5	3180	53	103	3240	54	103
6	2940	49	193	2940	49	193
7	2460	41	198	2700	45	183
8	4140	69	93	4200	70	92
9	2400	40	201	2460	41	180
10	2400	40	164	2400	40	164
11	2280	38	259	2340	39	257
12	3480	58	159	3540	59	155
Mean	2840	47.3	169.8	2920	48.7	163.1
SD	518.1	8.6	44.9	510.5	8.5	43.7
Min.	2280	38	93.0	2340	39	92
Max.	4140	69	259.0	4200	70	257

APPENDIX F 6: Serum midazolam concentration (ng ml⁻¹) on awakening from Jones et al (1993).

Patient number	Bulked 24 hour urine volume (ml)	α - OH Midazolam	α - OH Midazolam glucuronide	4 - OH Midazolam	4 - OH Midazolam glucuronide	TOTAL	Flumazenil
1	950	0.03	2.09	0.17	0.20	2.49	13.25
2	650	0.23	13.20	1.12	1.15	15.70	13.80
3	1,100	0.00	4.06	0.05	0.83	4.94	10.97
4	900	0.09	1.74	0.08	0.01	1.92	7.06
5	720	0.08	1.59	0.05	0.00	1.72	6.45
6	1,240	0.03	0.64	0.04	0.00	0.71	8.58
7	650	0.03	2.88	0.31	0.23	3.46	6.33
8	420	0.04	1.19	0.03	0.07	1.33	5.84
9	550	0.05	2.12	0.59	0.11	2.87	6.45
10	850	0.03	1.97	0.51	0.11	2.62	11.96
Total	8,030	0.62	31.48	2.95	2.71		90.69
Mean	803	0.06	3.15	0.30	0.27	3.78	9.07
SD	240.17	0.06	3.46	0.34	0.37	4.13	2.96
Min.	420	0.00	0.64	0.03	0.00	0.71	5.84
Max.	1,240	0.23	13.20	1.12	1.15	15.70	13.80

APPENDIX F 7: Percentage of midazolam and flumazenil dose recovered in a bulked 24 hour urine collection from Jones et al (1993).

Patient number	2	4	6	8	10	Time 15	(min) 20	30	60	120	180	240
1	18	32	62	93	97	35	33	30	23	16	0	0
2	16	24	28	24	23	21	14	12	6	0	0	0
3	25	45	39	37	33	31	27	21	13	4	0	0
4	10	12	13	28	20	16	12	11	6	3	0	0
5	17	23	28	33	30	18	15	12	9	0	0	0
6	19	22	39	28	20	15	13	8	4	0	0	0
7	27	39	48	56	50	44	42	38	23	16	0	0
8	11	22	42	30	26	15	13	10	8	0	0	0
9	13	25	36	33	30	23	22	15	8	3	0	0
10	15	31	28	24	18	15	16	9	8	6	0	0
11	14	15	19	16	14	11	8	7	3	0	0	0
12	15	21	40	31	24	21	19	15	10	4	0	0
Mean	16.7	25.9	35.2	36.1	32.1	22.1	19.5	15.7	10.1	4.3	0	0
SD	4.9	9.0	12.6	19.5	21.5	9.4	9.5	9.1	6.3	5.6	0	0
Min.	10	12	13	16	14	11	8	7	3	0	0	0
Max.	27	45	62	93	97	44	42	38	23	16	0	0

APPENDIX F 8: Flumazenil concentration (ng ml⁻¹) with time from Jones et al (1993).

Patient number	Body weight (kg)	$t_{1/2}$ (min)	AUC (total) (ng min ml ⁻¹)	Cl (ml min ⁻¹)	Cl / Body Wt. (ml min ⁻¹ kg ⁻¹)	$V_d(ss)$ (L)	V_d / Body wt. (L kg ⁻¹)	V^z (L)	V^z / Body Wt. (L kg ⁻¹)	MRT (min)
1	18.7	75.5	4513.1	136.27	7.29	12.7	0.68	14.8	0.79	93.4
2	16.0	24.8	989.0	465.12	29.07	17.5	1.09	16.7	1.04	38.7
3	20.0	34.8	2059.9	291.27	14.56	14.7	0.74	14.6	0.73	50.6
4	20.0	38.9	1087.9	556.14	27.81	32.7	1.64	31.2	1.56	58.7
5	32.0	29.9	1194.1	686.70	21.46	31.5	0.98	29.7	0.93	45.9
6	38.5	22.2	778.7	963.17	25.02	30.0	0.78	30.8	0.80	31.2
7	14.0	42.8	3477.9	158.14	11.30	10.3	0.74	9.8	0.70	65.2
8	24.0	25.4	972.4	575.90	24.00	23.6	0.98	21.1	0.88	40.9
9	20.0	33.3	1466.5	358.00	17.90	17.2	0.86	17.2	0.86	47.9
10	17.0	36.1	1102.9	317.35	18.67	16.8	0.99	16.5	0.97	53.1
11	25.0	21.5	544.5	771.33	30.85	24.1	0.96	23.9	0.96	31.3
12	19.0	38.7	1603.5	358.60	18.87	20.7	1.09	20.0	1.05	57.7
Mean	22.0	35.3	1648.5	469.83	20.57	21.0	1.00	20.5	0.90	51.2
SD	6.7	13.8	1134.8	239.52	6.92	7.1	0.20	6.7	0.20	16.3
Min.	14.0	21.5	544.5	136.27	7.29	10.3	0.70	9.8	0.70	31.2
Max.	38.5	75.5	4513.1	963.17	30.85	32.7	1.60	31.2	1.60	93.4

APPENDIX F 9: Flumazenil non-compartmental analysis from Jones et al (1993).

Patient number	Time to eyes open (sec)	Time to eyes open (min)	Flumazenil concentration (ng ml ⁻¹)	Time to self identification (sec)	Time to self identification (min)	Flumazenil concentration (ng ml ⁻¹)
1	240	4.0	32	360	6.0	62
2	120	2.0	24	240	4.0	24
3	120	2.0	25	240	4.0	45
4	240	4.0	12	300	5.0	7
5	240	4.0	23	300	5.0	14
6	180	3.0	20	180	3.0	20
7	180	3.0	33	420	7.0	52
8	300	5.0	32	360	6.0	42
9	150	2.5	13	210	3.5	25
10	180	3.0	23	180	3.0	23
11	60	1.0	14	120	2.0	14
12	240	4.0	21	300	5.0	31
Mean	187.5	3.1	22.7	267.5	4.5	29.9
SD	65.0	1.1	7.0	84.4	1.4	16.1
Min.	60.0	1.0	12.0	120.0	2.0	7.0
Max.	300.0	5.0	33.0	420.0	7.0	62.0

APPENDIX F 10: Flumazenil concentration (ng ml⁻¹) on awakening from Jones et al (1993).

Sample time (hr)	Observations (n)	Mean blood propofol concentration (ng ml ⁻¹)	Standard deviation (SD)	Standard error of mean (SEM)
0.003	7	3047.55	1204.30	455.18
0.083	12	1866.47	676.14	195.18
0.167	12	944.25	247.84	71.54
0.250	12	638.54	147.89	42.69
0.333	10	437.34	168.23	53.20
0.5	12	289.23	122.53	35.37
0.75	10	246.92	115.64	36.57
1.00	12	165.34	77.19	22.28
1.5	12	96.74	34.60	9.99
2.0	12	68.85	35.32	10.20
3.0	12	67.85	122.82	35.43
4.0	11	30.10	17.18	5.18
6.0	10	23.89	11.54	3.65
8.0	9	13.38	12.27	4.09
10.0	5	10.77	4.92	2.20
12.0	4	14.38	7.85	3.93
18.0	3	7.81	4.36	2.52
24.0	2	4.79	1.76	1.25

APPENDIX F 11: Mean (SEM) blood propofol concentrations for each sampling time in the 12 children from Jones et al (1990a).

Patient number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	mean	SEM
K ₁₂	4.185	9.151	0.313	11.984	2.889	5.589	5.874	3.170	5.574	13.412	3.712	3.742	5.80	1.12
K ₂₁	3.789	9.959	9.628	4.757	2.964	3.532	3.904	1.310	8.012	5.192	2.841	2.368	4.85	0.82
K ₁₃	5.722	9.471	3.748	2.906	1.595	1.115	1.678	0.641	1.378	1.564	2.194	2.125	2.84	0.72
K ₃₁	0.342	0.405	2.700	0.800	0.255	0.440	0.207	0.222	0.179	0.395	0.215	0.206	0.55	0.23
K ₁₀	6.792	19.549	3.336	14.412	2.942	3.715	4.317	1.811	2.539	5.792	5.449	6.156	6.40	1.53
V ^G	265.12	172.22	44.63	63.46	799.10	468.68	402.10	307.39	284.11	268.24	570.11	260.58	325.47	61.22
V ^G /kg	11.05	5.56	2.23	3.97	23.50	12.67	18.28	11.82	14.76	6.88	21.93	16.04	12.38	1.98
AUC	75.10	96.54	61.24	58.83	41.33	37.24	56.44	86.19	90.02	73.63	45.51	62.24	65.35	5.56
V ^m (L)	132.79	61.94	33.70	20.25	345.40	204.13	143.60	157.62	118.56	103.44	196.68	82.10	133.34	25.56
V ^m /kg	5.53	2.00	1.69	1.27	10.16	5.52	6.53	6.06	6.16	2.65	7.56	5.05	5.01	2.66
T _{1/2} ^a (min)	2.32	1.01	3.78	1.32	4.67	3.29	2.94	6.44	2.69	1.70	3.33	3.22	3.06	0.43
T _{1/2} ^b (min)	15.30	5.87	5.26	15.36	26.42	28.77	24.46	74.99	19.94	25.31	23.43	26.86	24.33	5.13
T _{1/2} ^c (min)	229.98	153.77	37.88	64.68	262.50	131.48	285.97	282.47	368.29	140.38	276.65	276.65	209.22	29.26
TBC (Lmin ⁻¹)	798	797	816	679	2,056	2,470	974	754	534	1,324	1,428	652	1,106	175
TBC / kg	33.25	25.70	40.80	42.43	60.47	66.75	44.27	29.00	27.74	33.94	39.66	40.12	40.34	3.60
V ^c (L)	7.06	7.45	14.69	2.83	41.94	39.90	13.54	24.99	12.63	13.72	15.72	6.36	16.31	3.77
V ^c /kg	0.29	0.08	0.73	0.18	1.23	1.08	0.62	0.96	0.66	0.35	0.60	0.39	0.60	0.10
Age (yr)	9	12	5	4	7	12	8	8	7	11	7	5	7.92	0.77
Weight (kg)	24	31	20	16	34	37	22	26	19	39	26	16	25.83	2.28
anaesthetic time (min)	27	34	35	22	31	30	30	22	27	31	36	21	28.83	1.48
eye opening time (min)		30	38	36	28	21	34	28	15	61	11	33	30.45	4.00
propofol dose (mg)	60	77	50	40	85	92	55	65	48	98	65	41	64.35	9.70

APPENDIX F 12: Demographic, awakening and propofol pharmacokinetic data in the 12 children from Jones et al (1990a).

APPENDIX G

Drug blood levels

Midazolam	292
Thiopentone	294
Propofol	295

Patient number	Age (yr)	Weight (kg)	Induction agent	Premed effect	Picture Score		Preoperative Serum Midazolam Concentration (ng ml ⁻¹)			
					after sleep	after premed	30 min	60 min	90 min	120 min
1	6	25.0	T	2	40	0	30.50	74.00	50.75	42.62
3	10	37.4	T	2	100	100	42.50	78.00	57.00	49.00
8	7	19.0	T	2	100	100	29.50	77.00	42.00	42.00
10	6	17.0	T	2	80	80	31.50	48.50	38.50	37.60
15	12	33.5	T	2	100	100	19.50	68.50	50.00	35.50
21	5	18.5	T	2	100	80	33.35	55.00	31.25	40.00
24	8	21.0	T	2	100	80	25.00	93.75	52.50	35.00
27	8.5	30.0	T	2	100	100	37.00	92.00	47.00	38.00
28	5	19.0	T	2	100	80	31.38	81.50	57.50	41.00
29	6	17.0	T	2	100	80	39.50	134.00	68.00	28.00
2	8.5	28.0	P	2	100	100	16.50	69.00	40.35	34.50
5	11	33.0	P	4	100	100	26.00	59.00	31.00	30.34
6	9	25.0	P	2	100	100	31.50	55.00	30.50	32.88
13	6	18.0	P	2	80	100	31.50	55.10	42.50	30.34
16	6	25.0	P	2	100	100	19.00	92.00	68.00	38.38
17	5	22.0	P	2	100	60	40.00	66.00	37.03	21.62
18	6	18.0	P	2	80	80	28.00	68.35	31.00	31.00
22	9	27.0	P	2	100	80	35.75	77.00	65.75	20.50
25	8	27.0	P	2	100	100	23.25	51.38	47.00	38.00
30	5	16.0	P	2	100	80	27.00	85.50	70.75	52.00
4	5	17.5	M	2	80	80	35.50	57.00	52.00	42.00
7	9	25.5	M	2	100	100	29.00	59.50	47.50	30.00
9	5	21.5	M	2	100	0	33.50	78.00	37.50	26.00
11	8	22.0	M	2	100	100	21.62	76.00	57.25	46.00
12	4.5	16.0	M	2	100	100	31.50	57.25	39.13	33.50
14	6	18.0	M	2	100	100	19.50	43.50	28.50	18.50
19	9	26.6	M	2	100	100	39.00	74.00	63.00	43.00
20	10	25.0	M	2	100	100	26.00	100.15		42.00
23	11	27.0	M	2	100	80	33.35	88.75	76.66	38.35
26	4	15.0	M	2	100	0	26.15	52.00	44.5	32.00

APPENDIX G 1: Patient data and preoperative serum midazolam levels from Jones et al (1993c & d).

Patient number	Anaesthesia duration (min)	Eye-opening time (min)	Identification time (min)	Post-operative Serum Midazolam Concentration (ng ml ⁻¹)				
				awakening	60 (min)	120 (min)	180 (min)	240 (min)
4	32	24	26	151.00	97.50	59.00	34.00	
7	42	30	36	141.00	93.50	78.50	40.12	33.00
9	27	29	45	137.00	67.50	39.00	35.00	31.00
11	39	21	29	134.38	91.00	51.25	37.00	19.50
12	35	23	24	127.88	58.50	49.75	41.62	29.00
14	48	27	31	131.00	77.25	52.25	48.50	33.50
19	32	57	57	134.50	74.00	66.00	53.00	19.50
20	33	30	30	131.00	79.75	51.00		
23	32	35	35	115.00	90.00	46.25	45.00	28.35
26	35	42	42	190.70	69.50	49.50	19.50	17.00
mean	35.5	31.8	35.5	139.35	79.85	54.25	39.30	26.36
SD	6.0	10.8	10.1	19.22	12.17	10.54	9.71	6.65
min	27	21	24	115.00	58.50	39.00	19.50	17.00
max	48	57	57	190.70	97.50	78.50	53.00	33.50

APPENDIX G 2: Awakening data and postoperative serum midazolam levels from Jones et al (1993c & d).

Patient number	Anaesthesia duration (min)	Eye-opening time (min)	Identification time (min)	Post-operative Serum Thiopentone Concentration (ng ml ⁻¹)				
				awakening	60 (min)	120 (min)	180 (min)	240 (min)
1	27	36	40	-	0.39	0.26	0.25	0.09
3	47	25	26	-	0.42	0.07	0.06	0.06
8	35	19	19	0.42	0.12	0.09	0.07	0.06
10	38	33	34	-	0.82	0.74	0.61	0.51
15	37	22	22	0.34	0.05	-	-	-
21	36	16	16	-	0.21	0.11	0.06	-
24	21	23	25	14.44	0.13	0.08	-	-
27	28	26	29	1.46	1.40	0.60	0.53	0.11
28	25	34	36	2.35	0.16	0.16	0.14	0.11
29	31	18	23	18.15	0.35	0.11	0.10	0.09
mean	32.5	25.2	27.0	6.19	0.41	0.22	0.18	0.11
SD	7.2	6.7	7.3	7.26	0.39	0.24	0.21	0.14
min	21	16	16	0.34	0.05	0.0	0.0	0.0
max	47	36	40	18.15	1.40	0.74	0.61	0.51

APPENDIX G 3: Awakening data and postoperative serum thiopentone levels from Jones et al (1993c & d).

Patient number	Anaesthesia duration (min)	Eye-opening time (min)	Identification time (min)	Post-operative Blood Propofol Concentration (ng ml ⁻¹)				
				awakening	60 (min)	120 (min)	180 (min)	240 (min)
2	30	21	22	463.5	83.7	44.7	27.4	24.3
5	39	23	23	-	162.7	102.8	70.8	70.1
6	33	24	25	438.5	116.3	80.4	35.8	35.0
13	25	10	10	-	176.8	150.2	34.0	29.4
16	25	33	34	379.0	97.7	85.6	46.9	37.3
17	28	30	34	323.1	100.2	58.7	56.1	49.4
18	30	18	22	286.0	105.5	80.1	49.3	25.9
22	35	11	11	-	226.0	215.7	113.1	104.2
25	27	29	29	941.1	306.1	141.7	115.9	69.4
30	27	20	20	439.4	181.1	91.5	78.7	65.1
mean	29.9	21.9	23	467.2	155.6	105.2	62.8	51.0
SD	4.3	7.2	7.8	82.7	22.2	16.1	9.9	8.2
min	25	10	10	286.0	83.7	44.7	27.4	24.3
max	39	33	34	941.1	306.1	215.7	115.9	104.2

APPENDIX G 4: Awakening data and postoperative serum propofol levels from Jones et al (1993c & d).

APPENDIX H

Data collection sheets

PATIENT DATA PREMEDICATION / SATURATION

NAME :		HOSPITAL NO.:		AGE:		DATE: / / 90		WEIGHT: kg		No:	
Medical History								PRE-MEDICATION			
1. RESPIRATORY SYMPTOMS				2. OTHER RELEVANT MEDICAL HISTORY				3. PETHIDINE/ATROPINE MIDAZOLAM/ATROPINE			
RTI? N / Y Date:								-----			
SLEEP APNOEA N / Y SIDS SIB ?								TIME (24 Hr CLOCK)			
TONSILLITIS N / Y								PRE MED :			
OBSTRUCTIVE SYMPTOMS N / Y								INTO OR :			
								INTO RECOVERY :			
								TO IDENTIFY SELF :			
4. ANAESTHESIA				5.				6. WARD DETAILS			
FENTANYL Y / N DOSE Mcg				TONSILLAR ENLARGEMENT				SLEEPING ON RETURN Y / N			
				CORMACK & LEHANE				HOW LONG			
								FULLY AWAKE			

PAEDIATRIC SATURATION STUDY

Patient name:

Age:

Sex:

P / M :

Hosp. No.:

	Period 1		Period 2		Period 3		Period 4	
Time invalidated by satmaster								
Time invalidated by operator								
Total time valid								
Mean SpO ₂								
Time in Range:								
90 - 95%								
85 - 90%								
80 - 85%								
75 - 80%								
70 - 75%								
< 70%								
No. of episodes								
90 - 95%								
85 - 90%								
80 - 85%								
75 - 80%								
70 - 75%								
< 70%								

INSTRUCTIONS TO NURSING STAFF

The aim of this study is to find out what happens to the oxygen saturation of children before and after they undergo surgery.

Do not disconnect any of the plugs from the oximeter, computer or at the wall. If the computer is disconnected, even for one second, it loses all the information and this is a disaster!!! If disconnecting the oximeter to go to toilet etc. Do not remove the micropore from the patient but disconnect at the grey / white junction.

THANK YOU for your help and co-operation!

Any problem / question - ring 298.

Please fill in the following information below:

1. Time patient receives pre-med
2. Times oximeter disconnected and re-connected for procedures. Please keep the time disconnected to a minimum.
3. Times post-op analgesia given and dose **also** fill in overleaf if patient was awake / asleep on returning to the ward and for how long.

Time

Event

PATIENT DATA
MIDAZOLAM / FLUMAZENIL (ANEXATE) PHARMACOKINETICS

NAME: _____ HOSPITAL NO: _____ HKID: _____
 DATE: _____ AGE: _____ WEIGHT: _____ kg CODE NO: _____

Condition on arrival in theatre:

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| 1. Agitated / Crying | 2. Aware, apparently anxiety free |
| 3. Drowsy | 4. Asleep, responds to commands |
| | |
| 1. Are you frightened? Y / N | 2. If Y, then what are you frightened of? |
| leaving mummy Y / N | Pain Y / N gweilos Y / N dying Y / N |
| going to sleep Y / N | needles Y / N |

Induction:

Alfentanil 5 micg/kg , then 60 sec later give Midazolam 0.5 mg/kg over 30 seconds
Commence pharmacokinetic timing at the end of midazolam administration
 Atracurium 0.5 mg/kg

Time of induction: hr Time of extubation:.....hr
 Duration of anaesthesia min

Induction comments:

Extubation:

Commence 6 minute timing and give reversal, 100% oxygen and extubate simultaneously.
 Gently ventilate by mask until spontaneous ventilation recommences
 when breathing transfer to recovery
 6 minutes after reversal give the first undiluted does of flumazenil,
 then wait one minute and commence the diluted flumazenil infusion.
 The infusion is to continue until the child says his name.

Recovery:

Actual time Flumazenil given in recovery : hr

Actual time of spontaneous eye opening : hr

Time from Flumazenil injection to spontaneous eye openingsec

Actual time of giving own name:hr

Volume of full strength flumazenil: ml Half strengthml

Total Does of flumazenilmg

Recovery comments and side effects:.....

24 Hour URINE volume:ml 10 ml urine sample collected Y / N

Sample No.	MIDAZOLAM									FLUMAZENIL											
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Time (min)	0	2	4	6	8	10	15	20	30	2	4	6	8	10	15	20	30	60	120	180	240
Actual Time																					
HR																					
BP																					
RR																					
Does patient go back to sleep in the WARD ?						Y / N		COMA SCALE													
Time into recovery:				Toy Completion Time (sec)																	
Time of eye opening:				Childs mood on awakening				1. laughing, euphoric 2. happy, contented playful 3. calm, drowsy, asleep 4. crying but calmed or irritable 5. severe pain, screaming, inconsolable													
Time of identification:																					
Actual time patient goes to sleep in the WARD:						hrs		TOY COMPLETION													
CONSCIOUSNESS:						COMA SCALE		SET UP:													
Fully awake, eyes open, conversing						= 4		Tray with Box and shapes													
Lightly asleep, eyes opening intermittently						= 3		Box at back of tray (Red button Uppermost)													
Eyes open on command or in response to name						= 2		2 Rows of shapes in front in the order below:													
Responding to ear pinching						= 1															
Not responding						= 0															
AIRWAY:								<div> <div>Cross (Orange)</div> <div>Arrow (Blue)</div> <div>Star (Green)</div> <div>Animal (Yellow)</div> </div>													
Opening mouth or coughing or both, on command						= 3															
No voluntary cough, but airway clear without support						= 2															
Airway obstructed on neck flexion but clear without support on extension						= 1		<div> <div>Animal (Green)</div> <div>Clover (Yellow)</div> <div>Animal (Blue)</div> <div>Animal (Orange)</div> </div>													
Airway obstructed without support						= 0															
ACTIVITY:								TEST: 1. Place tray in front of child 2. Start timing 3. Finish timing on completion													
Raising one arm on command						= 2		1 st sec. 5 th sec. 2 nd sec. 6 th sec. 3 rd sec. 7 th sec. 4 th sec.													
Non purposeful movement						= 1															
Not moving						= 0															
Add Scores for Consciousness, Airway and Activity								Pre-op. Toy Completion													
WRITE IN THE BOX ABOVE						TOTAL SCORE=====		PLEASE DO NOT HELP THE CHILD													
								Fastest Timesecs.													

PATIENT DATA

PROPOFOL / PHARMACOKINETIC DATA

NAME: HOSPITAL NO.: HKID:

AGE: WEIGHT: kg

Condition on Arrival in Theatre:

1. Agitated / Crying
2. Aware, apparently anxiety free
3. Drowsy
4. Alert, responds to commands

Time of Induction:

Time entered recovery (finish time) :

i.e. Anaesthetic time:

Induction Grading:

1. Good absence of side effects.
2. Adequate side effects not interfering with induction.
3. Poor side effects severe / protracted.

ANAESTHETISTS: SAMPLER:

Movement Grading:

1. Semi-purposeful
2. Tremor / rigidity
3. Convulsions
4. Breath holding / apnoea
5. Hiccup / Cough / Laryngospasm
6. None

If Apnoea occurs, Peak ETCO₂ Post apnoea mmHg.

Duration of apnoea secs.

Requiring ventilation Y / N

Desaturation (< 90%) duration : secs.

Induction Comments:

.....

Recovery Comments:

.....

PATIENT DATA

MIDAZOLAM / ANEXATE

NAME: _____ HOSPITAL NO: _____ HKID: _____
 DATE: _____ AGE: _____ WEIGHT: _____ kg CODE NO: _____

Condition on arrival in theatre:

1. Agitated/Crying..... 2. Aware, apparently anxiety free
 3. Drowsy 4. Asleep, responds to commands

Induction:

Time of induction: hr Time of loss of eyelash reflex hr

Duration of any apnoeic episode $\text{SaO}_2 < 90\%$ secs or NONE

Induction comments:.....

Recovery - Events:

Time of arrival in recovery: hr Duration of Anaes:min

Actual time Trial drug given in recovery: hr

Actual time of spontaneous eye opening:hr

Time from reversal injection to spontaneous eye openingsec

Actual time of giving own name:hr

1st injection mls

2nd injectionmls

3rd injection mls

4th injectionmls

Total Dose mls

Recovery comments and side effects:

.....

Evaluation by doctor:

Examination of injection site
 24 hr post op.

Efficacy of trial drug

Tolerance of trial drug

CODE: 1. Excellent 2. Good 3. Moderate 4. Poor

	PRE INDUCTION	Minutes Post-induction					PRE DRUG	Minutes post drug administration in Recovery & Ward														
		1	2	5	15	30		2	5	10	30	60	2 hrs	4 hrs	18 hrs							
	Actual Time																					
RR																						
BP																						
HR																						
E _T CO ₂							Commence injection 3 minutes after arrival in recovery															
MOOD SCORE						Coma Scale																
Patient asleep, not arousable						= 0	Mood Score															
Patient asleep, but arousable						= 1	Toy Compl Time															
Patient drowsy						= 2																
Patient awake						= 3																
COMMA SCALE								TOY COMPLETION														
CONSCIOUSNESS:								SET UP:														
Fully awake, eye open, conversing								= 4	Tray with Box and shapes Box at back of tray (Red Button Uppermost) 2 Rows of shapes in front in the order below: <table><tr><td>Cross (Orange)</td><td>Arrow (Blue)</td><td>Star (Green)</td><td>Animal (Yellow)</td></tr><tr><td>Animal (Green)</td><td>Clover (Yellow)</td><td>Animal (Blue)</td><td>Animal (Orange)</td></tr></table>						Cross (Orange)	Arrow (Blue)	Star (Green)	Animal (Yellow)	Animal (Green)	Clover (Yellow)	Animal (Blue)	Animal (Orange)
Cross (Orange)	Arrow (Blue)	Star (Green)	Animal (Yellow)																			
Animal (Green)	Clover (Yellow)	Animal (Blue)	Animal (Orange)																			
Lightly asleep, eyes opening intermittently								= 3														
Eyes open on command or in response to name								= 2														
Responding to ear pinching								= 1														
Not responding								= 0														
AIRWAY:																						
Opening mouth for coughing or both, on command								= 3														
No voluntary cough, but airway clear with support								= 2														
Airway obstructed on neck flexion but clear without support on extension								= 1														
Airway obstructed without support								= 0														
ACTIVITY:								TESTS:														
Raising one arm on command								= 2	1. Place tray in front of child				1 stsecs.		5 thsecs.							
Non purposeful movement								= 1	2. Start timing				2 ndsecs.		6 thsecs.							
Not moving								= 0	3. Finish timing on completion				3 rdsecs.		7 thsecs.							
Add Scores for Consciousness, Airway and Activity								Pre-op. Toy Completion				4 thsecs.										
TOTAL SCORE =====								DO NOT HELP THE CHILD				Fastest timeSecs.										

PATIENT DATA SHEET - Propofol, Midazolam, Thiopentone induction study

NAME:

HOSP No:

STUDY No:

DATE: / / 1992

AGE: yr.

WEIGHT: kg

Condition on arrival in O.T.:

agitated or crying		Are you frightened?	y / n
aware, apparently anxiety free		What are you frightened of ?	
drowsy		leaving mummy	
asleep but responds to commands		going to sleep	
PICTURE CARD: Features: 1. 2. 3. 4. 5. Score: %		Correct Y / N	
			gweilos
			pain
			needles
			dying

INDUCTION AGENT:

Time of induction:

hr

Time to recovery:

hr

Duration of anaesthesia:

min.

Induction comments:

.....

.....

Time of eye opening:

hrs.

Time of identification:

hrs.

WISC-R COMPLETION	TIME (sec)	ERRORS (n)
1 st		
2 nd		
3 rd		
4 th		
5 th		
6 th		
7 th		
fastest time with least errors		

SAMPLE NO.	1	2	3	4	O. T. induction				5	6	7	8	9
Time of Sample	30	60	90	120	0	2	4	6	AWAKE	1 hour	2 hour	3 hour	4 hour
Actual Time													
heart rate (min ⁻¹)													
systolic BP (mmHg)													
respiratory rate (min ⁻¹)													
end tidal CO ₂ (kPa)													
Post-Box toy (sec)													
WISC-R test (sec)													
MOOD score													
COMA score													

If the child goes back to sleep after transfer to the ward, mark the COMA score with an A at the time of assessment, awaken the child & perform the test.

AIRWAY:		CONSCIOUSNESS:	score	ACTIVITY	score
opening mouth or coughing on command	3	fully awake, eyes open, conversing	4	raising one arm on command	2
no voluntary cough, clear airway without support	2	lightly asleep, eyes opening intermittently	3	non-purposeful movement	1
obstruction on neck flexion, clear without support on extension	1	eyes open on command or in response to name	2	not moving	0
airway obstructed without support	0	responding to ear pinching	1		1
		not responding	0		
Add scores for AIRWAY, CONSCIOUSNESS, ACTIVITY	and	write score in coma score box above		COMA SCORE	

MOOD SCORE:		POST-BOX TOY COMPLETION TIME:				
laughing, euphoric	1	Place the box on the left of the tray with the two rows of shapes to the right, in front of the child and	1 st		5 th	
happy, playful	2	in this order: CROSS (orange) ARROW (blue) STAR (green) ANIMAL (yellow)	2 nd		6 th	
calm, drowsy, sleepy	3	ANIMAL (green) CLOVER (yellow) ANIMAL (blue) ANIMAL (orange)	3 rd		7 th	
irritable but calmed by mother	4	Record the child's completion time	4 th		8 th	
screaming, inconsolable	5	PLEASE DO NOT HELP THE CHILD, BUT DO GIVE ENCOURAGEMENT		FASTEST	TIME	(sec)